



CENSUS OF INDIA 1971

KERALA

**A
PORTRAIT
OF
POPULATION**

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KERALA

Foreword

This attempt to produce a popular version of the large census data for the general reader is an important innovation of the 1971 Indian census. Census publications concerning even a state run into a number of volumes. It is not possible for those who are not specialists to go through them all. At the same time the basic information contained in the hundreds of census tables is rich and of significance to a much larger number of the public than is likely to consult the census series. It is with a view to cater for this group of readers grown up as also those who are now in high schools and colleges that this Portrait of Population relating to every state has been produced. It seeks to present in a brief compass all that may be of interest to the general reader and that too in a non-technical language.

I trust this venture will be welcomed and will help to introduce every responsible citizen to the scope and variety of information that is contained in our decennial census reports.

NEW DELHI,
17th OCTOBER 1973.

A. CHANDRA SEKHAR
REGISTRAR GENERAL, INDIA

Preface

The Population Census conducted periodically is an operation that involves the entire population of the country but the Census report rarely attracts the attention of the public. This is mainly because the report is tied on to a multiplicity of tables which cater to the needs of the administrators, research workers and specialists in various fields but are of little interest to the general reader. An attempt is made in this book to present a simple picture of the population of Kerala as it emerged from the 1971 Census. If, in spite of shortcomings, in the choice and the presentation of details, I have been able to arouse in the reader an interest in the demographic situation in the State, I shall consider myself as having succeeded in this endeavour.

I am deeply indebted to Shri A. Chandra Sekhar, Registrar General and *ex officio* Census Commissioner of India for the inspiring guidance he gave me in this as well as other projects connected with the 1971 Census. I am also thankful to Shri R. B. Chari, Deputy Registrar General, India for his useful suggestions and also for his warm co-operation.

It is with genuine pleasure that I acknowledge the valuable contributions made by Shri M. A. Koshy, Deputy Director, who assisted me at every stage in the preparation of this volume with a sense of personal responsibility. I am also thankful to Shri B. T. Pillai, Deputy Director, for all the assistance he rendered in bringing out this volume in time.

The selection and arrangement of the statistics required for this volume from the mass of census data were done by Shri S. Jayashanker, Senior Investigator and Smt. P. M. Rugmani Amma, Tabulation Officer with the assistance of Kumari S. Radhamoni, Assistant Compiler. The maps, charts and illustrations were prepared with meticulous care by Shri K. Krishna Pillai, Draftsman. All matters connected with the lay out and printing of the volume were handled by Shri S. Jayashanker ably assisted by Sarvashri N. Ravindranathan Thampi, Printing Inspector and N. Aravindan and N. Madhavan, Proof Readers. The entire dictation of the first draft of the report was taken by my Stenographer, Shri S. Gopalakrishna Pillai. To all of them I feel happy to offer my sincere thanks.

The printing of this book was undertaken by the Government of India Press, Coimbatore. I am very grateful to Shri V. R. Sivaram, Manager, Sarvashri K. Gopalakrishnan and P. K. Subramanian, Assistant Managers, and their diligent staff for doing the job with utmost care and efficiency.

Trivandrum,
20th October 1973.

K. NARAYANAN

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Introduction

Every country takes a census of its population at regular intervals. In India, a population census is taken every ten years. The 1971 Census was the latest in the series in India with a tradition of a century of organized decennial census. Every census provides an instantaneous picture of the population as at the reference date and a series of censuses taken at regular intervals provide, so to say, a motion picture of the population, from which broad characteristics and general trends of the community can be assessed. After every census, a comprehensive picture of the population is presented in a General Report in which an elaborate and exhaustive analysis of the mass of data collected at the census is undertaken. More often than not, this results in a long delay in its publication and the picture itself assumes the nature of an X-ray photograph useful to the experts but not popular with the public. As a landmark in the long tradition of Indian census, a popular version of the General Report—*A Portrait of Population*—containing the basic characteristics of the population of Kerala State gathered through the 1971 Census is presented in this volume, leaving the more ambitious coverage of minute details to the General Report to be published after careful appraisal and analysis of the data.

In the United Nation's *Handbook of Population Census Methods*, a census of population is defined as 'the total process of collecting, compiling and publishing demographic, economic and social data pertaining, at a specified time or times, to all persons in a country or delimited territory'. As such, census is the primary source of basic data for administration and

social and economic planning. The fixing of electoral representation depends on census results. The census questionnaire is so designed as to meet the demands for information on the part of governments, the general public and research organizations dealing with business, labour, industry, social security and education. Basic data for study and research in the field of composition, distribution and growth of population are supplied by the census. Apart from these direct applications, it can be used as a frame for developing other data collecting procedures and checking the accuracy and comparability of data collected from other sources.

The word 'Census' is derived from 'Censere' Latin word meaning 'to rate'. In this sense, census is as old as human civilization itself. No society, however primitive, can be organized without assessing and rating its resources in terms of men and materials. The number of workers and taxpayers, and the number of persons liable to render compulsory military service were matters of importance even in a primitive society. A kind of census, in some such sense, was prevalent among the ancient Babylonians, Egyptians and Chinese. The Greeks and the Romans had certainly made estimates of citizens, aliens, labourers or taxpayers whenever required. Census could not have been unknown to ancient India, which had a highly developed civilization as far back as the third or fourth millennium B.C. as revealed by the excavations of Harappa and Mohenjo Daro. However, it was left to Kautilya (third century B.C.) the celebrated author of *Artha Sasthra* to deal with it systematically as a matter of state policy.

The history of census in modern India begins with the estimates taken by the East India Company from time to time of the population in its settlements.

different parts of India in the seventeenth century. The purpose of these estimates was limited to defence requirements and the collection of revenue and taxes. Systematic censuses were carried out from the beginning of the 19th century, leading to the first Imperial Census of 1871. The first census of the population on a uniform basis throughout the country, providing a valuable demographic record, was conducted in 1871 and thereafter census is being regularly taken in India every ten years.

The census history of Kerala State coincides with that of the erstwhile Madras, Travancore and Cochin States. In Madras, census history is said to begin with an estimate of population of Fort St. George and villages around it taken in 1687. Thereafter censuses were conducted in 1802, 1826 etc. till the all-India Census of 1871 known as the first Imperial Census.

The Memoir of the Survey of the Travancore and Cochin States (1816-1820) by Lieutenants Ward and Conner may be considered as the first census report of Travancore and Cochin. After this, censuses were conducted in both the States on several occasions until the censuses of those two princely states also synchronised with the Indian Census from the Imperial Census of 1881. The 1971 Census is the 11th decennial census of India, the third after independence and the second after the formation of Kerala State.

The Indian census has marched with the times. It has taken on its stride new and novel fields of enquiry, without losing its continuity and comparability with the past censuses. A Population Data Committee was set up in 1944 to advise the Government of India on the data relating to the growth of population. The Bhore Committee set up for planning post-war development in the field of health, recommended among other things, that 'the population problem

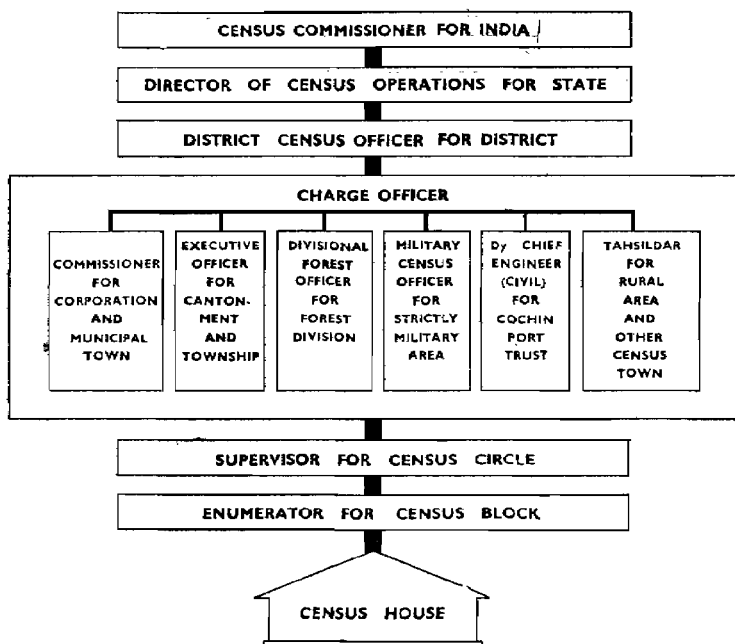
should be the subject of continuous study'. The Census Act passed in 1948 has cast definite obligations on the public and the census officials and has given legal sanctity to the census operations in the country. From 1949 steps were taken to establish a permanent organization at the centre to deal with vital statistics and census under the Registrar General and *ex officio* Census Commissioner for India. With the Indian nation embarking on a new era of planned development, the organization expanded considerably during the 1951 Census. In the 1961 Census, a new feature was introduced in the form of ancillary studies relating to rural life, craft, fairs and festivals, socio-economic survey of villages and ethnographic surveys of selected communities. In 1971 the census questionnaire was modified to collect more useful data on fertility, internal migration and economic activity. Ancillary studies now include an intensive study of about 200 towns in the country, the re-study of a few selected villages and continuation of the ethnographic surveys.

The system of census enumeration up to 1941 was more or less on an *ad hoc* basis. Yeatts, the famous Census Commissioner of India in 1941 compared the Indian Census with a 'comet appearing once in ten years in the statistical firmament, attracting much attention at its culmination but passing away eventually unnoticed'. However, the Census Department has since then come to stay on a permanent basis. The Registrar General of Vital Statistics is appointed as the *ex officio* Census Commissioner for India. In the States, Superintendents of Census Operations (now designated as Directors of Census Operations) are appointed for conducting census operations.

It is in the interest of census organization to adopt as the smallest unit of territory for which statistical data are to be presented, the smallest unit for

administration in the State and to press into its service the hierarchy of the normal administrative machinery. This is actually the case. The Director of Census Operations appoints, as District Census Officers at the district level and as Charge Officers at the taluk level, the officers of the State Government already having jurisdiction over the same district or taluk as the case may be. This is done with the concurrence of the State Government. A large number of enumerators and supervisors are required for each charge. They are normally appointed from the teaching profession which alone can supply such a large number of uniformly qualified personnel. A charge is divided into blocks of about 150 households or 750 population and an enumerator is appointed for each block and a supervisor for a group of 4 or 5 blocks.

ORGANIZATION CHART



There are two fundamental methods of enumeration called the canvasser method and the householder method. In the canvasser method which is followed in India, the canvasser or enumerator appointed for a specified area collects the information relating to each individual in the area by interviewing the head or any other responsible member of the household to which the individual belongs, and fills the census questionnaire himself. In the householder method, the questionnaire and instructions for filling them are distributed in advance to each household and the filled-in schedules are collected after the reference date of the census. In this method, though the census officials can be of some help, the primary responsibility rests with the householder and much depends on his level of education and civic responsibility. The level of literacy in India is still very low and hence the householder method cannot be introduced in the Indian Census in the near future. In India, the canvassers are selected carefully and given intensive training before they are sent out for actual enumeration.

In order to determine the distribution of population, every individual has to be enumerated either at the place where he is actually present on the census date, *de facto*, or at his usual place of residence, *de jure*. Variations of these two methods are necessary in practice. A combination of both these methods is adopted in India. The duration of enumeration is two to three weeks, though a particular date is fixed as the reference date. In order to ensure complete coverage and to avoid duplication, an individual who is away from his usual place of residence during the entire period of enumeration is left out and a visitor who is present during the entire period of enumeration at a particular place is enumerated at that place. Provision is also made to review the cases during the time

given for the revisional round, when information collected is revised to coincide with the position as on the reference date fixed for the census. Elaborate arrangements are also made to enumerate houseless persons, pilgrims, residents of hotels and rest houses and inmates of hospitals, jails etc.

The enumerators, who have to visit every house allotted to them at least twice during the short period of enumeration and revisional round and the general public who co-operate with them by giving correct information, play the crucial roles in this national endeavour. Even with the best of administrative arrangements for collection, tabulation and publication of data, the quality of the statistics depends mainly on the response of the public. The success of the recent census operations is indeed a tribute to the willing co-operation of the public and the army of honorary census workers who performed their arduous duties with a rare sense of devotion and dedication. It is hoped that the long tradition of fruitful co-operation between the citizens and the census officials will be maintained and strengthened and that the statistics collected through the census will prove more and more useful to the administration and social and economic planning in our country.

The preparation of the census questionnaire, its exact wording and arrangement merit the most careful consideration. No amount of effort at the tabulation stage can make up for a poorly designed questionnaire. The questions should be free from ambiguity and should not in the least be offensive. Even minute details like the format, spacing, colour, type and quality of paper cannot be overlooked as they have far-reaching effect on enumeration and tabulation, whether manual or mechanical. In India, the responses to the questions have to be edited and coded and the Individual Slip is

also used as a sorting document. Hence the arrangement of questions, and the size and the durability of the slip are of great importance.

As for the questions themselves, the requirements of the government and other users of census data have to be taken into consideration. The 1971 Census questionnaire was framed after consulting the interested organizations and after several discussions with experts and pre-tests in the field from 1967. It must be admitted that it was not possible to accommodate the demands for information to the full extent from all quarters. The scope of the census operations had to be limited having regard to the size of the operation, the type of the enumeration agency and the response that could reasonably be expected from the public.

As a result of consultations at various levels and practical tests the following schedules were finalised and canvassed in the 1971 Census.

- (i) Houselist
- (ii) Establishment Schedule
- (iii) Individual Slip

The canvassing of the Houselist was preceded by a systematic numbering of all census houses. The notional maps and lay out sketches prepared in connection with it gave a geographical frame for the smallest census unit. The information gathered through the Houselist also gave an advance estimate of the population from which the jurisdiction of an enumerator could be defined and the quantity of census forms required for the actual enumeration assessed. Most important of all, valuable data on housing, like the materials of the roof and wall of census houses,

the purposes for which census houses were used, whether the census households lived in owned or rented houses, the number of members in each household, and the number of living rooms in a census house, were gathered through this schedule. In addition, it was also ascertained and recorded whether the head of the household belonged to the Scheduled Caste or Scheduled Tribe. Special note was also made of households engaged in cultivation so that this information could form the basis of any future agricultural survey.

Realising the importance of establishments, a separate Establishment Schedule was canvassed in the 1971 Census to cover all kinds of establishments. The enquiry into the establishments covered such particulars as (1) ownership, whether government, quasi-government, private or co-operative (2) the number of workers engaged (3) the nature of industry, whether household, registered or unregistered (4) the description of products, processing, or servicing (5) description of trade, whether wholesale or retail (6) the type of fuel or power used and (7) kind of service rendered in case of establishments like government offices, schools, hospitals etc.

The Individual Slip was the basic schedule canvassed universally for every individual in the 1971 Census. As much demographic, social and economic characteristics as possible of every individual were attempted to be collected through this schedule. It contained seventeen questions. The main points on which information was collected were, name, sex, age, marital status, fertility, place of birth, short-term migration, mother tongue, literacy and level of education, religion, ethnic characteristics and economic activity.

The enumerator also prepared a Population Record for each household by grouping together

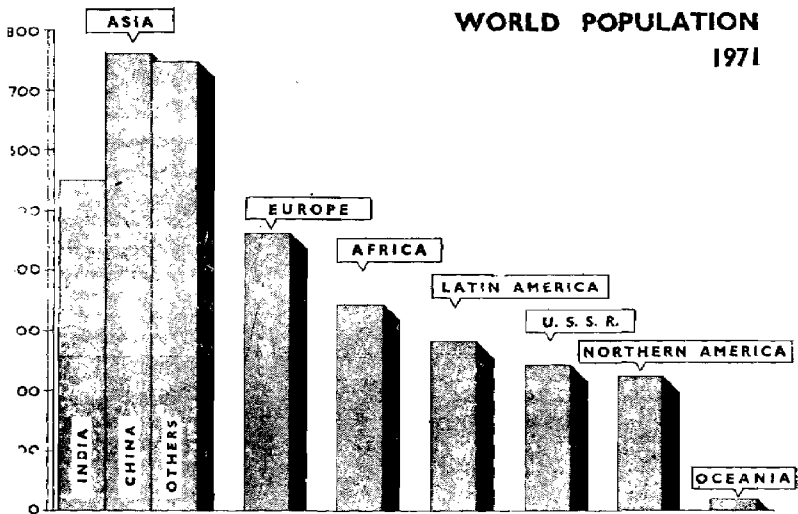
the members of the same household and copying the relevant particulars about them in a separate form from their individual slips. This could form the basis for studies and researches into the size and composition of households in the country.

The data collected in the 1971 Census will be tabulated, analysed and presented in a number of volumes to be published shortly by the Census Department. In this book only some of the basic characteristics of the population of Kerala are presented in a simple manner. In the following chapters, it is proposed to deal with the size, distribution, growth rate, sex ratio, mother tongue, level of literacy, ethnic characteristics and economic activity of the population of Kerala as revealed by the 1971 Census.

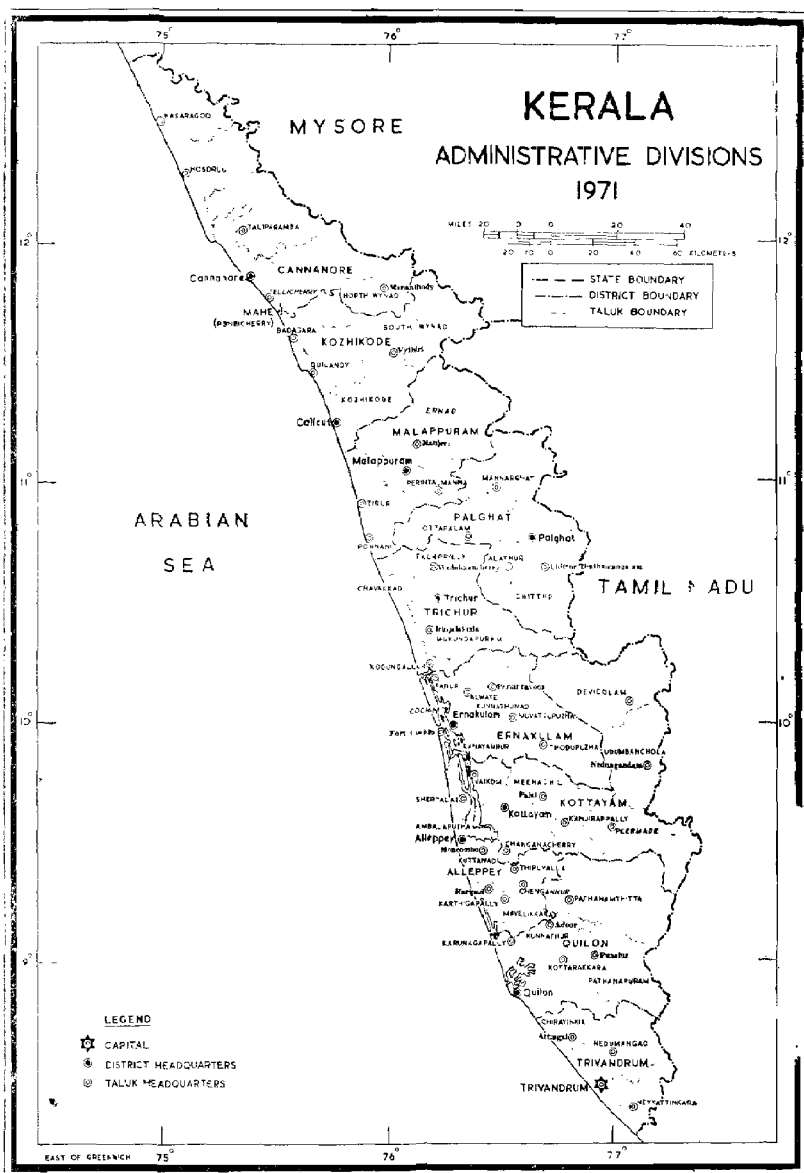
CHAPTER I

How many are we ? How are we distributed and by how much are our numbers growing ?

Do we believe in numbers? If so, we have every reason to be proud of our strength—21 million people living in one of the smallest states in India. It is at once our strength and our weakness. Feeding, clothing and

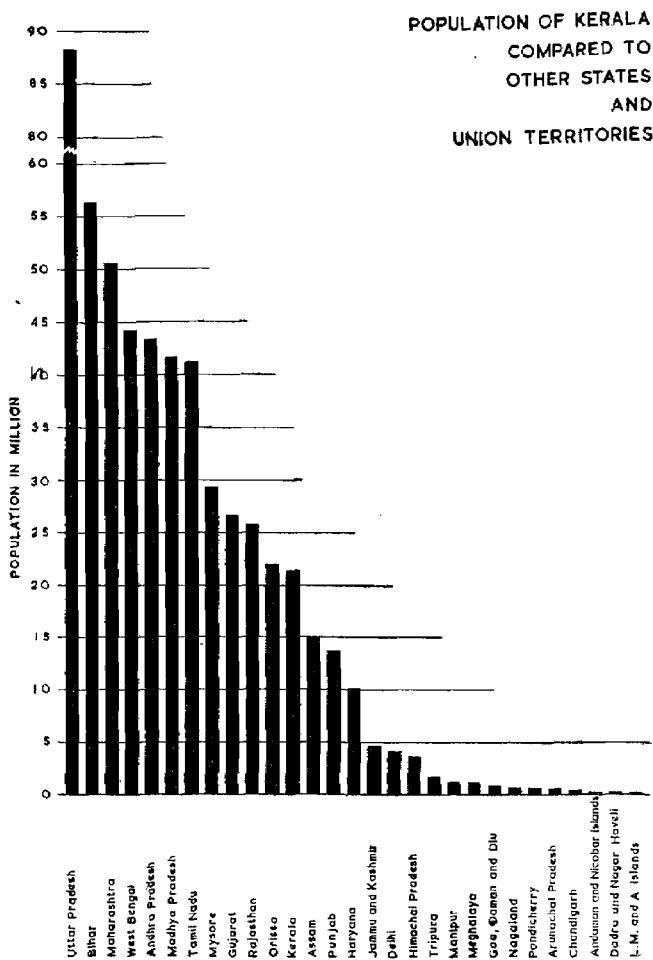


housing more than half of a hundredth of humanity in about a quarter of a thousandth part of the earth is indeed a herculean task.



BASED ON SURVEY OF INDIA MAP. THE TERRITORIAL WATERS OF INDIA EXTEND INTO THE SEA TO A DISTANCE OF TWELVE NAUTICAL MILES MEASURED FROM THE APPROPRIATE BASE LINE.

Let us see where we stand by comparison. India, by its size, population and position has the characteristics of a subcontinent. Out of some 3,710 million people in the world, 548 million live in India. There is no country in the world except China which is more populous than our country. The population of U.S.A.,



U.S.S.R. and Japan has to be put together to equal that of India. One out of every seven people in the world is an Indian. One in 26 Indians is a Keralite.

Then, is our number so staggering as we are led to believe? It is indeed so, when we consider the size of our state. Even otherwise, we are more numerous than the citizens of many independent countries in the world. Sri Lanka has only half our population, and Switzerland, just one third. In fact, we stand on a par with Canada, Yugoslavia and Columbia in population. Among the states in India, Orissa with an extent of four times that of Kerala has almost only the same population. Uttar Pradesh, the most populous state. India, with more than seven times the area of Kerala has only a little more than four times our population.

Why are we so overcrowded? Both history and geography have played their part in the making of modern Kerala. Our territory is a narrow strip of land along the south-western coast of India between the Western Ghats and the Arabian Sea. Its width varies from about 11 kilometres to 120 kilometres. While the mountains almost isolated it from the rest of India, the sea proved a window on distant countries and cultures from ancient times. Though the width is small, we have a fairly long coastal line of about 580 km.

There is a colourful tradition about the origin of Kerala. Parasurama, the legendary hero of many, is said to have thrown his battle axe across the sea and made the water recede up to the spot where it fell. A tract of land thus rose from the sea from Gokarna in the north to Kanyakumari in the south. A beautiful and precious gift of the sea! Only we wish our hero were stronger and claimed more land for us! It seems that the sea is trying to snatch the gift back by invading the land. We are heroically resisting the attempt by building mighty granite walls at vulnerable places. Nowadays



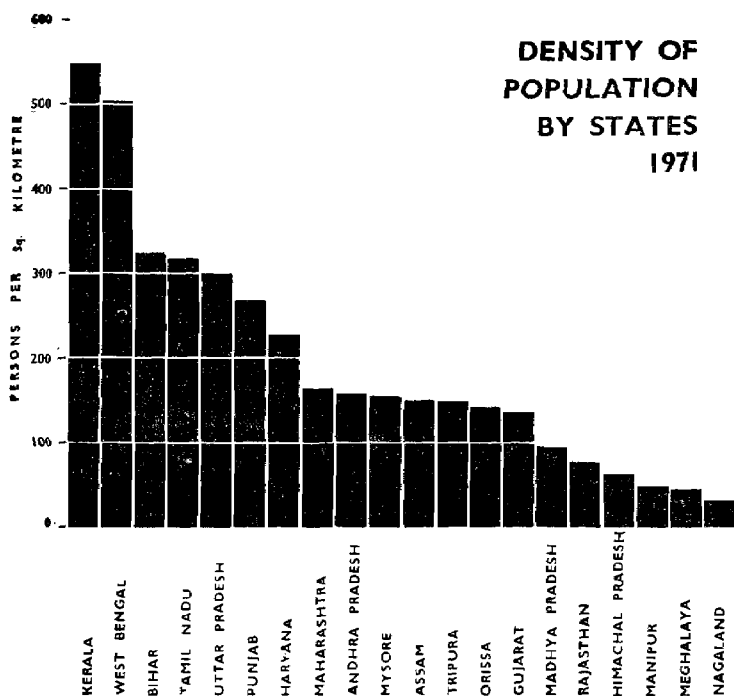
body gives much thought to the unscientific surama tradition. But it certainly supports the view that the sea once reached the foot of the Western Ghats and that Kerala was formed due to some seismological upheaval in the distant past.

Ancient Kerala had cultural and trade contacts with the civilized countries of the world. Kerala was famous for its spices like pepper, cardamom and cinnamon and also for ivory and sandalwood. It is said that the ships of Assyrians, Babylonians and of King Solomon frequented Kerala coast for trade in spices. Adventurous travellers and learned philosophers of the world could meet their equals in our land. It is believed that St. Thomas, the apostle of Christ, landed at Muziris (modern Kodungallur) in 52 A.D. and founded seven churches in the Malabar coast. The Jews and Muslims too had their early settlements in Kerala. The landing of Vasco da Gama at Calicut in 1498, marked the beginning of a chain of historical events which led to the domination of different parts of Kerala by foreign powers. The princely states of Travancore and Cochin, managed to keep their identity by treaties with the East India Company while Malabar became a part of the British province of Madras. After India became independent Travancore and Cochin States were integrated into a single state in 1949. As a result of the reorganization of States in India on linguistic basis, a new State, Kerala was formed on 1st November 1956, by integrating the Malabar district and Kasaragod taluk of the erstwhile Madras State with Travancore-Cochin State (excluding Thovalai, Agastheeswaram, Kalkulam, Vilavancode and Shencottah taluks). The State thus formed has an area of 38,864 sq. km. and is bounded by Mysore State on the north and north-east, Tamil Nadu on the east and south and by the Arabian Sea on the west.

The land presents a picturesque variety of physical features. The territory falls into three natural divisions, the highland, the midland and the lowland. The mountain ranges on the east varies in altitude from 900 to 2,400 metres and is covered for the most part

with dense forests. The hilly areas close to the mountain is called the highland. It is rich in plantations like tea, coffee, rubber and cardamom for which Kerala is justly famous. The coastal fringe called the lowland is luxuriously covered by coconut palms and paddy cultivation. Stretching westward in gentle slopes, between the highland and the lowland is the midland, rich in paddy, tapioca and spices.

The variety of climate is only matched by the variety of physical features. The cool bracing climate of the highlands is in sharp contrast to the hot humid climate of the plains. But we do not have unbearable extremes, thanks to the sea on the one side and the mountain-wall on the other side and rainfall spread



almost evenly throughout the year. It is comparatively dry only from January to April. The forest-clad hills and the plains covered by coconuts and paddy cultivation give the State the appearance of a Garden of Eden.

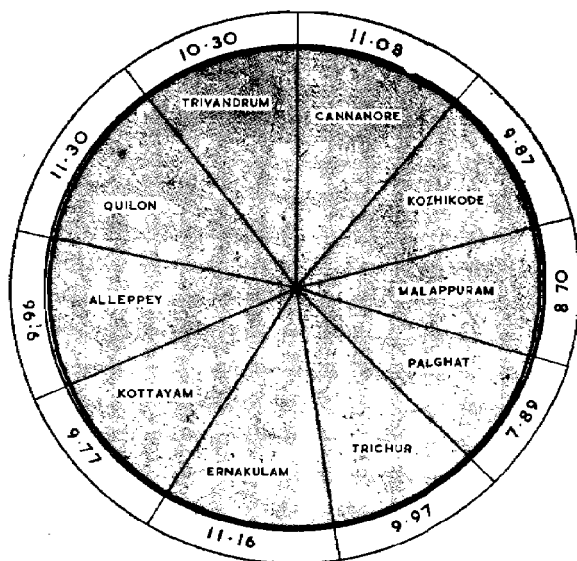
The problem of overcrowding can be appreciated better by finding the average number of persons per sq. kilometre of territory, the density of population. The area of our State is only 1.18 per cent of the area of the country but it has to support 3.90 per cent of the population of India. The density of population in India is 178 persons per sq. km. whereas in Kerala it is 549. There are 317 persons per sq. km. in Tamil Nadu and 153 in Mysore. West Bengal is our nearest rival with a density of 504. People in developed countries of the world have generally more living space. The density of population of the world is only 27. The U. S. A. and the U. S. S. R. have still less. Canada is so thinly populated that the density works out at 2 persons per sq. km.

We know that all parts of the world are not equally habitable. There are deserts, rocky regions, dense forests and regions with severe climatic conditions that man cannot withstand. So it is only natural that all parts are not equally populated. Some areas can sustain a large population in reasonable comfort while in some other areas even a small population has to undergo severe hardships. Settlements in some parts of the earth are comparatively new. More areas remain to be opened for habitation, while some areas have reached a point of saturation. Ours is an ancient civilization. We feel the pinch because our economic progress has not kept pace with our increase in numbers over the decades. Still we should not think that ours is the only place in the world where so many have to live in so small an area. There are some

areas—but they are only small pockets—which are more thickly populated than our state. Hongkong and Singapore are far more congested, with densities of 3,955 and 3,528 respectively.

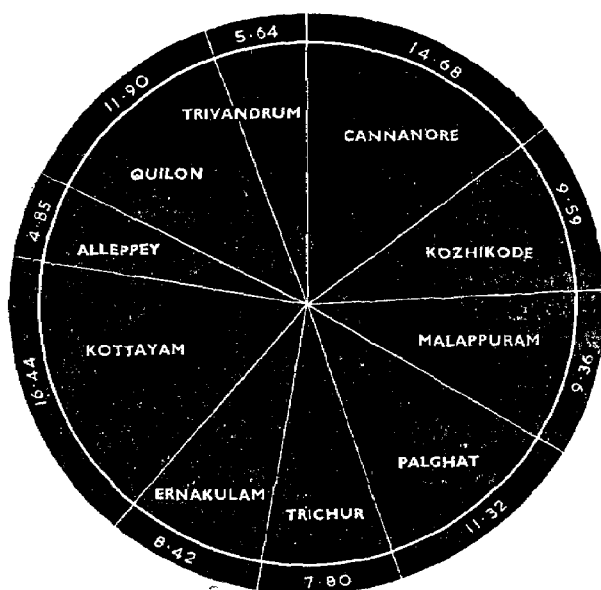
We have seen that the population is not uniformly distributed among the various countries of the world. In India also, this disparity is significant among the states. Kerala is about 18 times more densely populated than Nagaland. Even in such a small state as ours, the distribution of population is not uniform. Indeed it is not possible, as physical features and natural resources are not everywhere the same.

**DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION
BY DISTRICTS, 1971**
PERCENTAGE



At the time of the 1971 Census, there were 10 districts in the State. The average population of a district in our state is 21.3 lakhs. In the whole country, the population—size of a district is much less at 15.4 lakhs. In Bihar, Tamil Nadu and West Bengal the districts are more populous than in Kerala. In Nagaland the average population of a district is as small as 1.7 lakhs. In a state like ours the area and the size of population of a district do not go together.

**DISTRIBUTION OF AREA
BY DISTRICTS, 1971**
PERCENTAGE



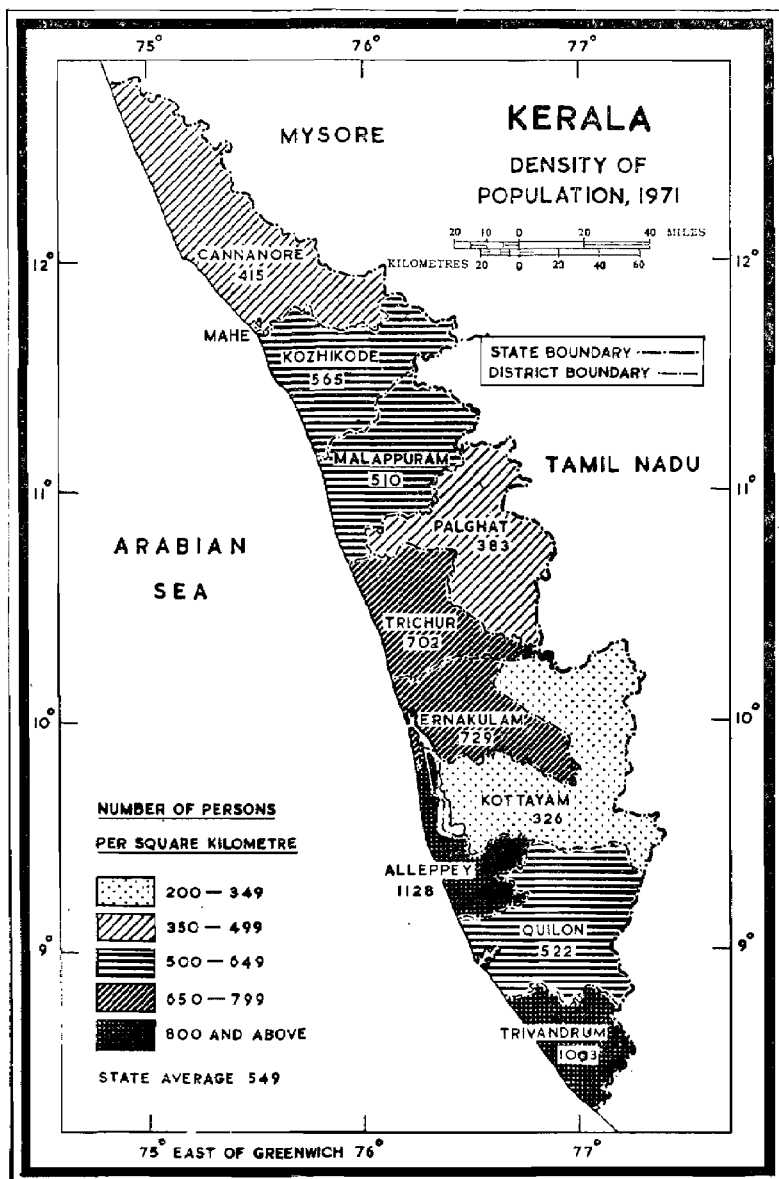
Equitable distribution of both area and population among the districts at the same time is an impossible ideal. Population is more or less balanced but inevitably there is a greater disparity in area among the

districts. In nine out of ten districts, the population is within a range of 20 per cent above or below the average population of a district. The solitary exception—Palghat district—is below this range in population size. The average area of a district is 3,886 sq. km. Only five districts fall within the range of normal variation of 20 per cent. Two are above and three below this range in extent. The smaller districts are, as pointed out earlier, not necessarily less populous. Quilon, the most populous district, and Palghat, the least populous district are among the districts of more or less average extent. However population and extent are not the only factors considered in the formation of districts. Backward areas, or areas requiring special attention due to any reason, may stake the claim for the creation of a new district. After the 1971 Census, the hilly areas of Kottayam and Ernakulam districts were constituted into a new district called Idikki. This could have further narrowed down the disparity in extent and population among the districts of the State. It cannot be presumed that the last word has been said about creation of new districts, as administrative or developmental needs may favour the formation of still smaller districts in future.

There were 56 taluks at the time of the 1971 Census. Four to eight taluks constitute a district. The average population of a taluk is 3.8 lakhs. Departure from the average is the rule rather than the exception. At the extremes, Kozhikode taluk has a population of 9.4 lakhs and Kodungallur 1.1 lakhs. There are 9 taluks with a population of 5.5 lakhs and over and 10 taluks with a population of less than 2.5 lakhs each. The remaining 37 taluks have population ranging between 2.5 and 5.5 lakhs. Physical features of the State, age of settlements and potential for development are the main reasons for the uneven distribution of

population. The coastal areas of the State were colonized at an early date. Fishing, coir industry, paddy cultivation and trade provided the settlers with employment. But the habitable land is very limited. Backwaters, canals and paddy fields have to be left out and the remaining areas have almost reached a point of saturation. The fortunes of persons engaged in coir industry fluctuate with uncertain demands from the foreign markets. The midland which was colonized later presents a picture of fast development in agricultural produce, mostly cash crops and spices. The hilly regions were the last to be colonized. The pressure of population in the lowland and midland and opportunities of employment in rubber, tea and cardamom plantations in the hilly areas, induced the people to settle down in the high ranges. The taluks in the highest population size class are Tellicherry, Kozhikode, Ernad, Tirur, Trichur, Mukundapuram, Quilon, Trivandrum and Neyyattinkara. Most of them are in the coastal and midland regions with early settlements. Kozhikode, Trichur, Quilon and Trivandrum are headquarters-taluks of the districts of the same name and well known centres of administration, trade and commerce. They are also in general highly urbanized. Three out of five cities in the State are in those taluks. The taluks in the least populous size class are North Wynaad, Ponnani, Mannarghat, Kodungallur, Thodupuzha, Devicolum, Peermade, Kanjirappally, Kuttanad and Chengannur. Some of the taluks in this group are in the high ranges of comparatively recent colonization. On the other extreme, taluks like Kuttanad in the lowland have also smaller population because backwaters, canals and paddy fields limit the habitable area.

We have already seen that while 9 out of 10 districts in the State are within the medium range in population, only 5 districts are within the normal range



BASED UPON SURVEY OF INDIA MAP. THE TERRITORIAL WATERS OF INDIA EXTEND INTO THE SEA TO A DISTANCE OF TWELVE NAUTICAL MILES MEASURED FROM THE APPROPRIATE BASE LINE.

of variation in area. Hence a better idea of the settlement pattern in our state can be obtained by considering population densities of the districts and taluks. The density of population of the State, 549, is the average of densities ranging from 326 to 1,128 in the districts. Using the same yardstick for comparing population and area and taking a 20 per cent variation from the average as normal, we have only just three districts in the State in this group. They are Kozhikode, Malappuram and Quilon. The 'low density' districts also number three, they are Cannanore, Palghat and Kottayam. There are four 'high density' districts, Trichur, Ernakulam, Alleppey and Trivandrum.

Any further explanation is hardly necessary for the variation in densities of population among the districts of the State. The physical features, history of settlement and other factors which affect the concentration of population have already been discussed. Kottayam district which included the high range taluks of Devicolum, Udumbanchola and Peermade at the reference date of the 1971 Census, has naturally the lowest density of population in the State. Alleppey district, constituted of the highly developed taluks in the lowland and the midland and with no hilly or forest areas, is the most densely populated district in the State. No wonder that Ernakulam and Trivandrum districts are also in the high density group, the former being in the forefront of industrialization and the latter holding its own as the district with the capital city and institutions of regional importance.

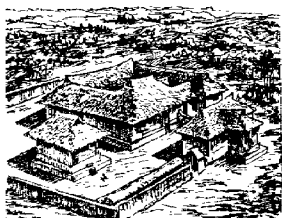
Some districts at least are formed of taluks of high and low densities. Hence variations in densities will be more pronounced if we consider taluks individually. Some taluks are wholly within the sparsely populated hilly regions and some within the thickly populated lowlands and midlands. Cochin on the

one extreme has a density of population of 2,817 persons per sq. km. and Devicolum on the other extreme has only 76 persons per sq. km. There are 5 taluks with less than 200 persons per sq. km. and 7 taluks with a density of more than 1,500.

Perhaps a more realistic picture of the pressure of population can be obtained by considering the population in relation to the cultivated area. Only about 56 per cent of the area of our state has been brought under cultivation, and chances of more areas being brought under cultivation are remote, as practically no cultivable land is kept idle. The density of population is 983 persons per sq. km. of cultivated land. Districts show wide variation in density ranging between 593 in Palghat and 1,535 in Trichur. Jammed into a narrow coastal strip, hemmed in on one side by the Western Ghats and on the other side by the Arabian Sea, our state is crowded by more than 21 million of us, living in less than two-thirds of the area of the State. However our visitors do not think so, as we do not live huddled together in crowded streets. We live as far as possible in isolated houses with their own compounds, at the cost of valuable agricultural land fragmented into house sites. Still are we living in reasonable comfort? Hardly so, when we consider the housing shortage. Next to food and clothing, a roof over the head is the least that a man should have, as a matter of right. Preliminary to the 1971 Census, all the houses in the State were numbered and listed in 1970. Thus we are in a position to know the housing conditions in the State. A house, in the census terminology, is a building or part of a building having a separate main entrance from the road or common courtyard and used or recognized as a separate unit. It can be used for residential or any other purpose. Schools, offices, temples, factories, jails and hospitals are all census houses.

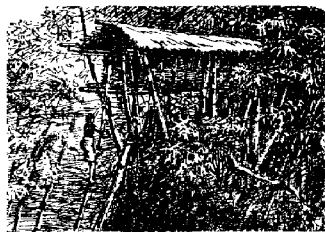
We are now interested in knowing about the living conditions of our people. Let us see whether the census can throw any light on this aspect of our enquiry. It can, as separate listing of residential and non-residential houses was done. In an occupied residential house one or more households may live. A household is a group of persons who commonly live together and take their meals from a common kitchen unless the exigencies of work prevented any of them from doing so. Normally there will be only one household living in a house. If many households share a house, it is indicative of a housing shortage. Members of a household are often related by blood. But there can be households of unrelated persons. Inmates of boarding houses, hostels, orphanages and ashrams are examples. They are called institutional households.

According to the census, there are 3,418,244 occupied residential houses in our state accommodating 43,129 households. In other words for every 100 occupied houses there are 104 households. A census house can be just a one-roomed hut or a palatial bungalow. The vast majority of our houses lack in modern amenities. Even bath-rooms and latrines are luxuries beyond the means of an ordinary household in Kerala. The strength of an average household in our state is 4.3 but each house has to accommodate on an average 5.5 persons. In 1921, the number of persons per occupied census house was only 5.37. Evidently there is more congestion now. There are slight variations in the strength of households among the districts, from 3.6 in Palghat to 6.40 in Cannanore. The strength of the household is generally higher in the urban areas than in the rural areas. The urban areas of Kozhikode district has on an average 7.10 persons per household, the highest in the State.

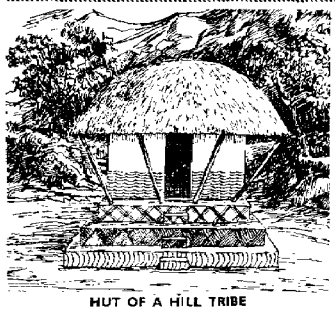


THE TRADITIONAL NALUKET

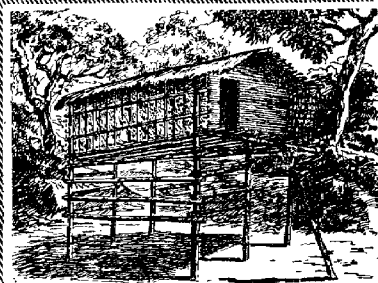
HOUSE TYPES IN KERALA



TREE HOUSE IN FOREST AREAS



HUT OF A HILL TRIBE



HUT ON STILTS IN FOREST AREAS



HUT WITH HAT ROOFING



HUT OF CADJAN LEAVES



MIDDLE CLASS HOUSE



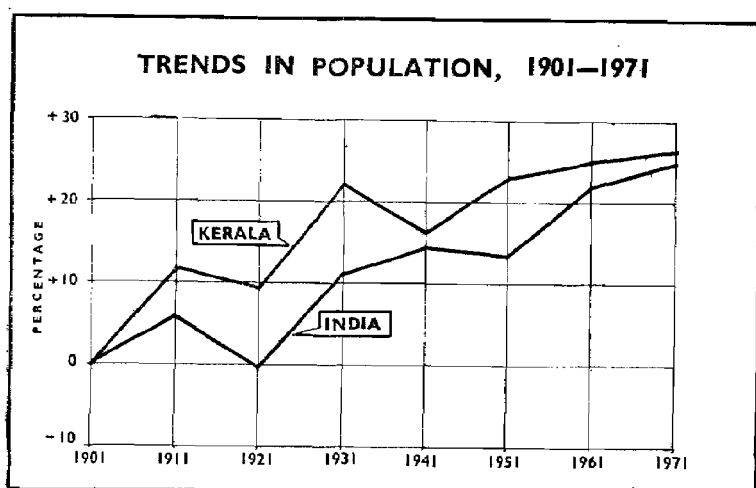
MODERN HIGH CLASS HOUSE

million in 1986. During the corresponding years, the population of Kerala would be 27 million and 29 million respectively. Nobody claims accuracy in such predictions but even a rough estimate is very useful. According to the Expert Committee's projection, the population of India in 1971 was 561 million. But the actual population was found to be only 548 million. In the same way the projected population of Kerala was also higher than the actual by about 5 lakhs. Three reasons can be given for the gap between the projection and the actual count. Firstly the projections were too high because mortality rates did not fall down to the very low level (14 per thousand in 1968) assumed in preparing them. Secondly the assumption of a constant general fertility ratio through 1966 and a fall of 5 per cent during the period 1966-70 did not prove to be correct. On the other hand the actual drop was more than 5 per cent. A third factor may be the extent of under count in 1971 Census. The Post Enumeration Check conducted soon after the 1971 Census has revealed that for every 1,000 persons actually enumerated in the country the true number lies between 1,014 to 1,019. The Southern States show the lowest net under count, the actual number of persons per 1,000 censused individuals varying between 1,009 and 1,015.

The trends in the population growth of India and Kerala can be understood by considering the decennial population figures from 1901 to 1971.

It will not be correct to presume that the population of the world has been steadily increasing all the time. Census figures tell a different story. There has been set backs due to wars, revolutions, and epidemics. In India between 1911 and 1921 there was actually a decrease in population and during the

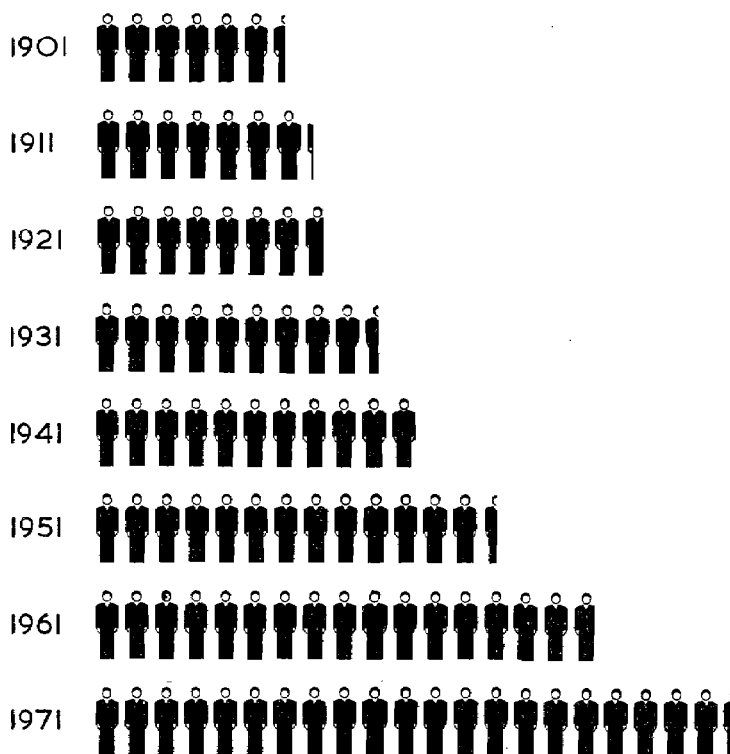
decades before, the growth rate had not been so steady or sustained as during the decades after 1921. During the half century after 1921, the increase of population has been phenomenal. In Kerala, the transition from haphazard growth to steady increase took place even before 1921. During the decade 1911 to 1921 when there was a decrease in the population of India, Kerala had actually an increase of population. Thereafter, in every decade the growth of population in Kerala was always at a higher rate than that of India.



What are the factors that determine the growth rate of population? Births and deaths are the major factors everywhere. In some countries, the growth rate is affected during certain periods due to migration—large scale movements of people into the country or away from the country. Migration does not have any appreciable impact in the growth rate of population of Kerala. Perhaps a few more people leave the State than the number of people who come to the State. Net migration is almost negligible. Hence we

may consider the growth rate merely as a function of births and deaths. There can be several possible combinations of these two, which can be high, low or moderate. In India both birth and death rates were high

GROWTH OF POPULATION IN KERALA, 1901-1971



EACH SYMBOL REPRESENTS ONE MILLION PERSONS

and they continue to be so but for a slight reduction in mortality rate. As we know medical knowledge is more freely and universally shared than technical

knowledge. Hence we have taken long strides in the eradication of epidemics which used to take a large toll of life from time to time. Hence during recent times, especially after 1921 large scale deaths due to plague, malaria and other epidemics have been averted or controlled. This, more than anything else accounts for the steady growth of population since 1921. In the Travancore and Cochin areas of Kerala State, effective public health measures were introduced even earlier than in other parts of India. Hence the accelerated growth rate began in Kerala even before 1921. We have already seen that the projected population of India and Kerala was higher than the actual population in 1971. This is because the death rates due to normal causes did not come down to the extent anticipated by the Expert Committee.

In the absence of migration, the increase of population is the difference between the births and deaths. There are arrangements for registering births and deaths in the country. Therefore it is theoretically possible to assess the growth rate from registrations and it should agree with the figures revealed at the decennial censuses. However, due to imperfections in the registrations these figures seldom agree. There is considerable under registration of both births and deaths. This has been detected through the Sample Registration Scheme introduced in selected urban and rural areas. Though the absolute figures may not be quite reliable the natural increase of population, as the difference between registered birth rates and death rates from 1921 onwards shows certain significant trends.

The birth rate is fluctuating but there is a tendency for declining though not very appreciably. But the death rate is slowly but surely declining. The net result is a high growth rate in population.

Census has revealed, as could be expected, a still higher growth rate of population. Its impact on the economy is obvious. The density of population of Kerala was only 165 persons per sq. km. in 1901. By 1971 it has gone up to 549.

Our ancestors in 1901 had a share of 0.61 hectare of land per head. Today, each one of us has only one-third of that share.

During the seven decades from 1901 to 1971 all the districts in Kerala registered sustained increase of population. The constituent parts of the present Kerala were not affected much even during the decade 1911-21 when there was actually a decrease of population in India. In Travancore and Cochin areas the set back went off unnoticed while in Malabar area the growth rate was small. During the decade 1961-71, all the districts maintained a high rate of increase of population, Malappuram reaching a record of 33.8 per cent. Alleppey district which has the highest density of population in the State may almost be said to have reached the saturation point. The rate of growth was lowest in Alleppey. It is possible that more people migrate from coastal areas like Alleppey to the midlands and highlands.

CHAPTER II

Village dwellers and town dwellers

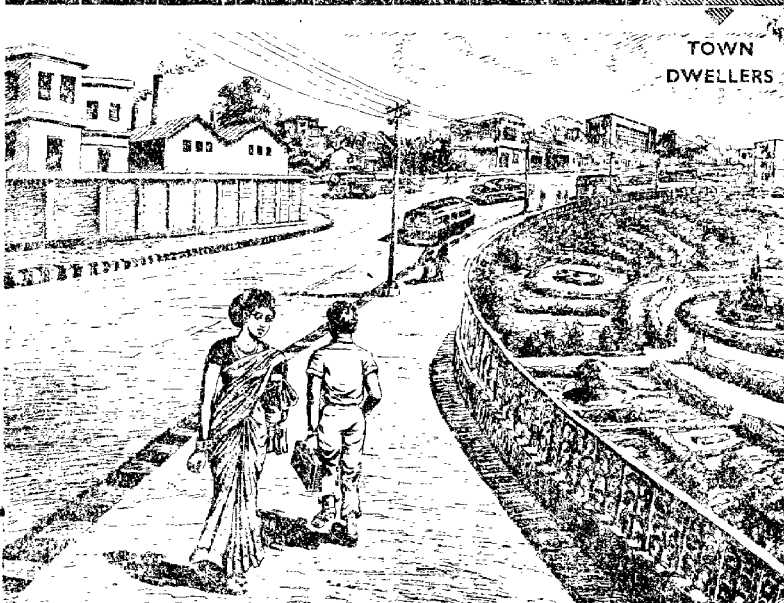
How close are we to nature? It depends on where we live, in a remote village or a busy town. They are in certain respects totally opposed to each other. In the urban world man made environment predominates over the natural. Instead of the sweet music of the early birds one may hear the shrill noise of a siren performing its duty with monotonous regularity. In the rural areas people generally lead a simple well ordered life 'far from the madding crowds ignoble strife'. They are satisfied to follow the well-trodden path of their forefathers in earning their livelihood and fulfilling their social obligations. They are proud of their traditional calling and jealously guard the secrets of their trade. There is no fierce competition among them. They share their joys and sorrows with their neighbours. Life is more adventurous and more complicated in a town.

Physical differences between rural and urban areas may become less sharp but social customs die hard. Most of the people in rural areas are cultivators whose families are also content to follow the same occupation. In the urban areas occupations are mainly non-agricultural and members of the same family may follow different types of non-agricultural occupations. Rural communities are small, scattered but

homogeneous. Urban communities are large, heterogeneous and quick to adopt new and novel ideas. Mobility, both occupational and terrestrial, is an integral part of urbanization. Contacts of urban population are frequent, but impersonal, casual and shortlived. Among the rural population contacts are less frequent but more personal and lasting.

Are there places which may be termed strictly rural? Are they not becoming urbanized? When we speak of a rural area, the picture that comes to our mind is a cluster of houses surrounded by vast areas of arable or barren land and having poor communications with the next settlement. In other words, a small community, isolated from other communities, and more or less self-sufficient in its day to day needs, is an ideal rural society. There is little interference from outsiders provided they pay their taxes. Even disputes and offences of a minor nature are disposed of locally by the elders who have the moral authority to carry out their decisions.

Kerala villages have little resemblance to the villages in other parts of the country and the world. Our settlement pattern admits of no isolation. The boundaries of village administration are not apparent to the people and even if they are, they seldom act as barriers to human relationship. In our rural areas, there is no necessity for the people to huddle together in tight, squalid settlements. Neither the fear of man nor of nature has forced the Malayalees to live in rows of houses in a street or build fortifications round their settlements. We feel that this is the most natural way of living. But listen to the remarks of our visitors. One scholar has this to say. "Their villages are the most open in the world, with the possible exception of Malayan Kamponge; the dwellings are scattered wherever there are trees to give them shade, and with



so little sense of the need to concentrate around a focal point, that the stranger is at a loss to know where one community ends and the next begins, in the broad ribbon of settlement that runs, broken only by a few stretches of stony wasteland, almost all the three hundred miles from Cannanore to Trivandrum'

Due to the peculiar settlement pattern, the difference between the rural and urban areas in our state is not so pronounced as in other states in the country. Except for a few highland villages, with poor communication facilities, the villages in general are not very backward and the towns still preserve something of their natural beauty.

Rural areas are being urbanized and the urban centres are expanding their jurisdiction. It is no doubt, a sign of progress. The positive influences of urban areas cannot be over emphasized. They play a dynamic role in the social, political and economic life of the State. Social movements to fight against evils of certain traditional social practices, and political movements for independence and self-government had their origin in the towns. Industries located in towns contribute to the economic progress.

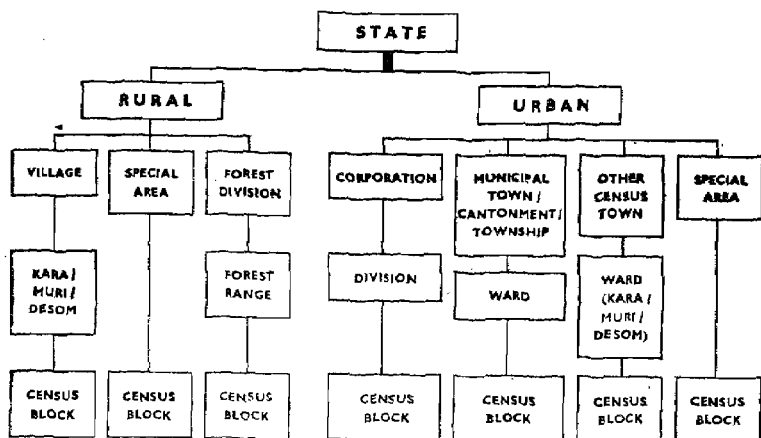
Urbanization in Kerala has not followed the same pattern as in the developed countries. In those countries industrialization preceded urbanization with the result that the basis of economy became predominantly non-agricultural before urbanization. But here industrial growth has not kept pace with urbanization. Many of our towns cannot be called industrial or commercial. Concentration of educational and other institutions and administrative offices has contributed more towards urbanization than industrialization in many cases.

The tendency all over the world is that the urban population is increasing at a faster rate, than rural population. This is understandable as migration to the towns is always taking place due to various reasons. People who retire to the countryside in search of peace and quiet are comparatively few. Modern amenities of life, better educational and medical facilities and a greater variety of employment opportunities are but a few of the attractions that draw people to the towns. In many of the developed countries the proportion of rural population is actually dwindling. It is estimated that 'between 1920 and the year 2000, the world's total population would grow more than three-fold, its urban population nearly nine-fold, and its rural population would double'.

It is customary to divide the people into rural and urban at every population census. The definitions of the terms 'rural' and 'urban' change from period to period and from country to country. In simple terms urbanization is a 'process of population concentration' but the transitional stage from rural to urban is hard to recognize. Hence some places get the administrative status of towns only long after they cease to be rural. From the beginning of the present century the Indian census recognized as urban areas, every municipality, all civil lines outside municipal limits, every cantonment and other places with a population of not less than 5,000 and possessing urban characteristics. Places having special status as municipality or cantonment presented no problem. But many places which claimed the status of a town on the basis of population did not have predominant urban characteristics because they were essentially agricultural areas. This concept of the town was more or less followed up to the 1951 Census. The recognition of municipalities, cantonments and civil lines as urban areas, was upheld in the 1961 Census also but further

tests were introduced in the case of other places with a population of more than 5,000. They were, that the density of population should be at least 400 persons per sq. km. and that at least 75 per cent of the male working population should follow non-agricultural occupations. Under these conditions also, the Director of Census Operations in each state could use his discretion in declaring a place as a census town in consultation with the State Government concerned depending on the degree of urbanization of the place. This concept of a town was adopted in the 1971 Census also.

RURAL-URBAN UNITS

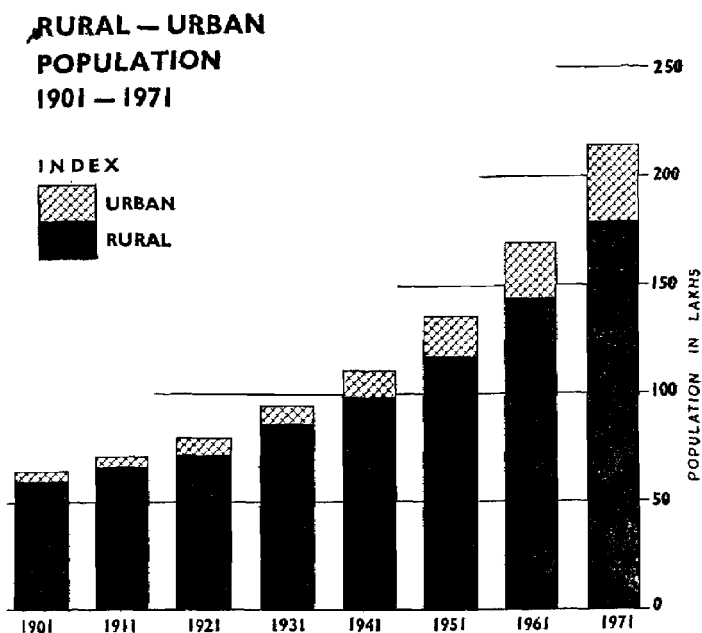


There is no universally accepted definition of a town. It changes from country to country but urbanization as a process of population concentration is accepted by all. In the United Kingdom, the area classified as urban for local government purposes is considered as town in the population census also. In France, communes containing an agglomeration of more than 2,000 inhabitants living in contiguous

houses or with not more than 200 metres between them and communes of which the majority part of the population is part of a multi-communal agglomeration of this nature, are taken as urban. Cities and urban type localities officially designated as such by each of the constituent republics, usually according to the criteria of number of inhabitants and predominance of agricultural or non-agricultural workers and their families are recognized as urban in the U.S.S.R. Sri Lanka leaves no discretion to the census organization. The areas statutorily declared as coming under the purview of municipal, urban, or town councils alone are recognized as urban.

According to the 1971 Census only 3.47 million people in Kerala live in towns. They form only 16.24 per cent of the population of the State. In the whole country town dwellers form 19.91 per cent of the population i.e. a little less than one-fifth of the total population. Compared with the developed countries of the world, urbanization is rather slow in India. According to the latest estimates 78 per cent of the population in United Kingdom in 1970 was urban. The urban population (as per the 1960 Census) of United States was about 70 per cent. U.S.S.R. and Japan are also far ahead with 56 per cent and 68 per cent of urban population in 1970 and 1965 respectively. 19 per cent of the population of Sri Lanka was urban in 1963. Among the various states in India, Kerala does not occupy an enviable position in urbanization. Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, West Bengal and Mysore are far ahead of our state. In Maharashtra 31 per cent of the population live in urban centres. There are of course less urbanized states, in Orissa, only 8.4 per cent of the population are town dwellers. What is the reason for our backwardness? It is not that the density of population is low but the basis of economy in many thickly populated areas is

still agriculture. Slow progress of industrialization is the reason for our trailing behind other States in urbanization. This is reflected in the growth of urban population. The percentage of urban population has increased from 15.11 to 16.24 in Kerala during the decade 1961-71 whereas in the whole country it increased from 17.98 to 19.91.



Nearly 84 per cent of the population of Kerala are rural. The whole state is divided into villages for the sake of administration. There are 1,326 revenue villages, some of them are rural, some urban and a few partly urban. For instance six revenue villages Madathuvilakam, Chengazhasseri, Vanchiyoar, Palkulangara, Iranimuttom and Aramada are wholly within the capital city of Trivandrum, and another seven revenue villages, Kadakampally, Ulloor,

Chettivilakam, Randamada, Anchamada, Cheruvakkal and Muttathura are partly within its limits. Of the 1,326 revenue villages in the State 58 villages lie wholly and 136 villages lie partly in the urban areas. More revenue villages are becoming parts of towns such as municipalities and corporations. The rural areas, though certain pockets have been declared as census towns in view of their predominant urban characteristics, are within the jurisdiction of Panchayats. The rural areas present a continuous expanse of isolated houses. Each family likes to live within its own ancestral holding, separated by an earthen wall or at least a fence. The villages are usually very large compared with villages in other parts of the country. They have subdivisions known as 'kara' in Travancore, 'muri' in Cochin and 'desom' in Malabar areas of the State.

Because of the diversity in the physical features of the State and due to other reasons, there is no uniformity in the size of the villages. There is still greater disparity in the distribution of population even among the rural villages. Even a comparison is only of doubtful value because some revenue villages remain wholly rural while some others are urbanized to various extents. The population of Poonkunnam, a village in Trichur district is only 13, whereas the population of Kalkoonthal village in Udumbanchola taluk is 63,466. The average population size of a village is 14,102. The population size of a village is below the State average in Trichur, Palghat and Cannanore districts, not because they have less rural population but because they are divided into a larger number of villages than in many other districts. Quilon has the largest rural population, 22.2 lakhs living in 98 villages. Next comes Cannanore with a rural population of 20.4 lakhs living in 178 villages. Though the rural population of Trichur is less at 18.8 lakhs they live in 229 villages. Hence the

average population of a village is lowest in Trichur district. Kottayam has a rural population of 18.7 lakhs spread out in 101 villages. Due to a greater degree of urbanization, Ernakulam, Kozhikode and Trivandrum districts have smaller proportion of rural population than the other districts.

At the lowest level, the participation of the representatives of the people in administration is ensured through the panchayats. In our state, in many cases, the revenue villages and panchayats are not co-terminus. However in the 1971 Census a special effort was made to give census data panchayat-wise as well. At the time of the census there were 951 panchayats in the State. Panchayats, being mainly concerned with rural areas their set up should give us a better picture of rural life.

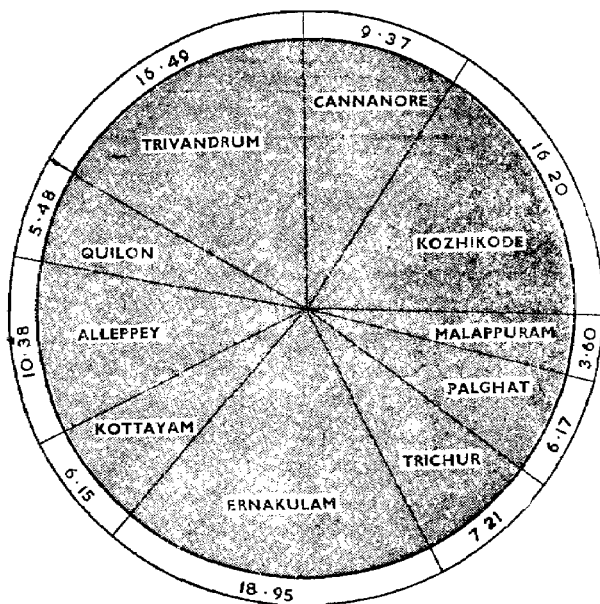
There is no uniformity in the population size of the panchayats in the State. Munnar Panchayat in Devicolum taluk has a population of 65,570 while Vattavada in the same taluk has only a population of 3,038. The number of panchayats in a district is not proportional to the rural population of the district. Quilon has the highest rural population but it is Cannanore which is having the highest number of panchayats. The average population of a panchayat in the State is 19,872. It differs widely from district to district. Quilon has the highest average population per panchayat, with over twenty-three thousand. In the State there are two small panchayats with less than 5,000 population and 81 huge panchayats with over 30,000 population. Between these extremes there are 32 panchayats with a population between 5 and 10 thousand, 509 in the 10 to 20 thousand range, and 327 in the 20 to 30 thousand range. The larger panchayats are distributed in all the districts, Quilon having 17 and Palghat having 3 of them. As panchayat administration is strengthened a reorganization

with a more equitable distribution of population among the panchayats is bound to take place.

Let us now turn our attention to the urban population. Though they are in a minority forming only 16.24 per cent of the population of the State, they are more vociferous and influential and supply most of the leaders in politics and administration. The recognized urban areas of the State consist of three corporations, 27 municipal towns, one cantonment,

URBAN POPULATION BY DISTRICTS, 1971

PERCENTAGE



one township and 56 other census towns. The corporations, municipal towns, cantonment and township are *ipso facto* urban areas. But the other census towns, 56 in number, are recognized as urban only on the

basis of the concept of a town adopted in the census and they are parts of rural areas under the jurisdiction of the Tahsildars. However some of them have been constituted as municipal towns after the census. We can presume that most of these census towns are potential municipal towns awaiting administrative recognition and already possessing urban characteristics. Of the urban population, about 11.8 lakhs live in the 3 corporations, 12.5 lakhs in the municipal towns and 10.2 lakhs in the other census towns. The population of the cantonment and the township together is only 20,613.

India, as we have already seen, lags behind the more developed countries in urbanization. Among the states in India Kerala is less urbanized than many others. The reason is that the industrial growth has been slow and halting. There is wide disparity in urbanization among the districts. While 27.56 per cent of the population of Ernakulam district is urban, only 6.73 per cent of the population of Malappuram is urban. Urbanization is closely linked with industrialization. Ernakulam is in an enviable position. The presence of many of the largest industrial undertakings in Kerala at Alwaye and Kalamassery areas of the district and the availability of excellent import and export facilities in Cochin port, have made it the most industrialized district in Kerala. In Trivandrum district 26 per cent of the population are town dwellers. The special advantage of Trivandrum district is that it has the capital city, with a large number of administrative offices and educational institutions affording opportunities for employment in non-agricultural occupations. Kozhikode, Alleppey and Cannanore districts have also got fairly large urban population due to a higher degree of industrialization and concentration of government offices and commerce and trade. Non-agricultural employments in coir industry

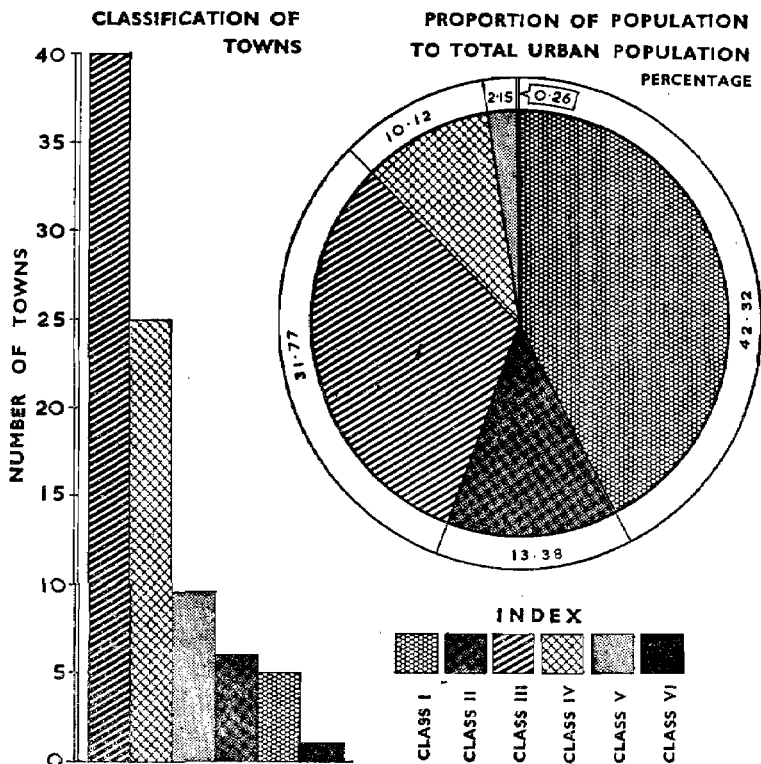
in Alleppey and handloom industries in Cannanore have contributed towards the urbanization of these districts, though these traditional industries are often in difficulties. Quilon, Kottayam, Trichur and Palghat districts are predominantly agricultural and hence the urban population is comparatively small.

A district consists of 4 to 8 taluks, of varying degrees of urbanization. The taluks, themselves, being smaller units present a better picture of urbanization. Some taluks are in the forefront while some others are untouched by the process of urbanization. Cochin and Trivandrum taluks have 60 per cent of their population urban, and Kanayannur and Kozhikode are also not far behind with more than 50 per cent of their population urban. Cochin and Kanayannur are part of the Cochin Corporation, the most populous city in Kerala. Trivandrum, the capital of the State and Calicut, the district headquarters, are well known centres of administration and trade respectively. Rapid urbanization is taking place in these taluks. It is strange but true that 11 taluks in the State are still entirely rural. They are North Wynad, South Wynad, Alathur, Kodungallur, Udumbanchola, Peermade, Kuttanad, Karunagapally, Kunnathur, Pathanamthitta and Kottarakara. These represent the two extremes in the physical features of the State. Some are in the forest-clad hilly regions, sparsely populated and having poor communication facilities. Others are in the lowlands with more paddy lands and backwaters than habitable areas. Both these regions are therefore bound to be slow in urbanization.

The urban population of Kerala is distributed among 88 towns of which 56 are 'census towns', without separate administrative set up. The population of the least populated town is 4,382 and the most populated city is 439,066. Hence a classification of towns according to the size of population is necessary. In the census,

towns with a population of 1 lakh and above are taken as Class I, those between 50,000 and 1 lakh are taken as Class II, between 20 and 50 thousand are taken as

TOWNS BY SIZE OF POPULATION, 1971



Class III, and between 10 and 20 thousand are in Class IV. In addition, small towns with a population between 5 and 10 thousand are included in Class V and those with below 5,000 are included in Class VI. In Kerala there are 5 Class I towns, 7 Class II towns, 40 Class III

towns, 25 Class IV towns, 9 Class V towns and 2 Class VI towns. But 42.32 per cent of the total urban population is living in Class I towns which may be called 'cities'. The next largest group of town dwellers belong to Class III towns, of which there are 40 in Kerala. The small towns in Class V and VI are few and their population is less than 2.5 per cent of the total urban population. The cities in Kerala are Cochin, Trivandrum and Calicut Corporations and Alleppey and Quilon Municipalities. Of these the population of Cochin and Trivandrum has exceeded 4 lakhs.

Five districts in the State, Cannanore, Malappuram, Palghat, Trichur and Kottayam have no cities at all. Alleppey has 5 municipal towns whereas Malappuram, Kozhikode, and Quilon have only one municipal town each. The only township is Guruvayur in Trichur district and the only Cantonment town is in Cannanore district.

Although the growth of urban centres has not been spectacular, there has been considerable increase in the number and size of towns during the past seven decades in Kerala. There were only 21 towns in 1901. Today it stands at 88. Before 1941, no town in Kerala found a place among the cities. There were 2 cities in 1941, 3 in 1951, 4 in 1961 and 5 in 1971. Class III towns have increased considerably in number from 6 in 1901 to 40 in 1971.

Towns have their individuality. Some are highly industrialized. Some are well known for trade and commerce. Yet others may be metropolitan towns with accent on administration and all kinds of services. Census has a method of classifying towns according to their functions. The workers in a town are classified and grouped into five broad divisions. They are (1) primary activity, consisting of agriculture and allied occupations,

(2) industries, (3) commerce, (4) transport and (5) services. Of course no town can have workers of one group alone. But one or a combination of two or more groups will predominate and that will decide the primary function of the town. If one group of workers forms 40 per cent or more of the total number of workers, then the town will be designated with the function to which that group of workers is associated. Thus the functional category of a town can be primary activity, industrial, commercial or service depending on which of these groups of workers form 40 per cent or more of the total workers. But one group alone may not be able to muster sufficient strength to form 40 per cent, in which case the next predominant group is also added. If together they form atleast 60 per cent of the workers, then the town will be known by both functions such as service-cum-industrial, primary activity-cum-commercial and so on.

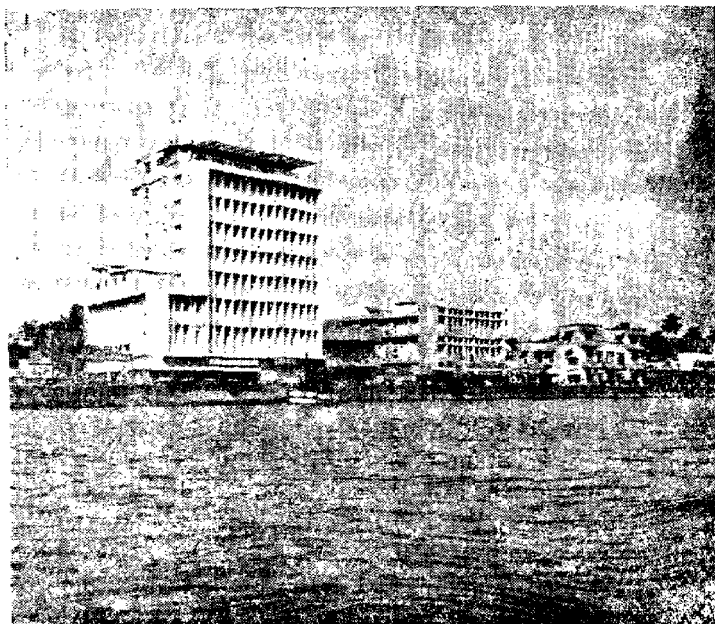
There is only one city in the State which can be described by one function alone. This is Trivandrum city under the functional category 'service'. In other words more than 40 per cent of the workers in Trivandrum city are engaged in 'other services' which consist mainly of white collar jobs. This is typical of a metropolitan city which is not noted for large scale industries, trade or commerce.

In the case of both Calicut and Cochin, industry and commerce have to be clubbed with services to describe their functional category and they are classified as 'service-cum-industrial-cum-commercial'. Alleppey and Quilon belong to another category 'industrial-cum-service-cum-commercial'. Among the small towns some are in the functional category of 'primary activity' and a few are 'industrial'. But 'primary activity' is also one of the constituents of multiple functions of many more towns.

The cities of our state deserve special study. In the population census they assumed importance only because they are towns with a population of above one lakh. But their importance does not rest on numbers alone. These towns have played decisive roles in the history of the State. They are all maritime cities which had contact with the outside world from very ancient times and they have profoundly affected the destiny of the whole state. Hence we may examine their growth and development in greater detail.

COCHIN

Cochin is the most populous and the most extensive city in Kerala. It has stolen a march over Trivandrum, the capital of the State, which was until recently the largest city in the State. In the 1961 Census, the



COCHIN—A VIEW FROM THE BACKWATERS

main constituents of the present Cochin Corporation, namely, Ernakulam, Mattancherry and Fort Cochin were separate municipal towns. According to the 1971 Census, Cochin Corporation has a population of over four lakhs.

It is strange that Cochin the most important port of modern Kerala, is not mentioned by ancient travellers and writers like Pliny, Ptolemy, Marco Polo and Ibn Batuta. A plausible explanation is that Cochin Port was formed only in 1341 A.D. when due to heavy flood in the Periyar, the ancient port of Muziris (Kodungallur) got silted up. With the arrival of the Portuguese the port came into prominence. They first came to Cochin in 1500 A.D. and the ruler of Cochin received them with open arms and allowed them trading rights. The Portuguese in turn helped the ruler to defend Cochin against the frequent attacks of the Zamorin. Towards the close of the 17th century the Dutch ousted the



CHINESE FISHING NETS

Portuguese from Cochin. The kings of Cochin extended their friendship to the new power also and remained steadfast in the alliance until the English drove the Dutch away in 1796.

The port of Cochin known as the 'Queen of the Arabian Sea' is one of the most important major ports on the western coast of India. By the side of the port, is Willingdon Island, a man-made island reclaimed by the soil dredged for deepening the port. The harbour is connected with the mainland by rail, road and backwaters.

Fort Cochin was the oldest European settlement in India. The Portuguese built a fort there and it was destroyed by the Dutch. Vasco da Gama was buried in the St. Francis Church here, the oldest European Church in India.

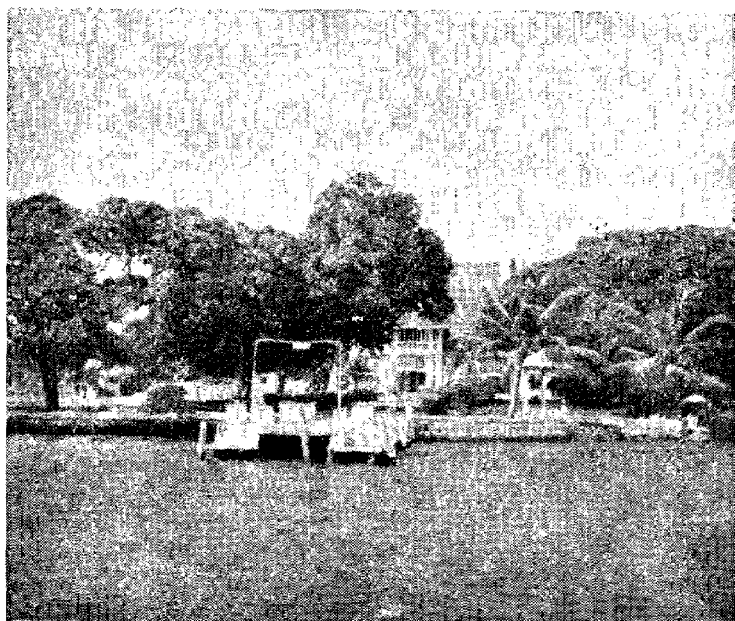
The Mattancherry Bazaar is one of the most crowded commercial centres in the State. Trade in pepper, ginger, cardamom, copra, coir, tea, coffee, rubber and other produces of Kerala is carried on here. Mattancherry is one of the oldest Jewish settlements in India. The 'Jew Town' lies to the south of Mattancherry Boat Jetty. The Jews are said to have migrated from Cranganore to Mattancherry, to escape the persecution at the hands of the Portuguese. The white Jews' Synagogue is a major tourist attraction, enriched by historical associations. The floor of the Synagogue is paved with porcelain tiles brought from China. Col. Macaulay presented the silver lamps and the Maharaja of Travancore, a golden crown to the Synagogue. In the Synagogue, is preserved the 'Copper plate grant' of Bhaskara Ravi Varma conferring certain rights and privileges on the Jewish Prince Joseph Rabben and his heirs 'till earth and the moon last'. The Dutch palace at Mattancherry was built by the

Portuguese and presented to the Raja of Cochin. It is adorned with mural paintings. The 'Leaning Cross' (*Coonan Kurisu*) famous in ecclesiastical history is found in Mattancherry Bazaar. It was before this cross that the Syrian Christians assembled and declared their independence from the spiritual authority of the Pope. The Thirumala Devaswom temple at Mattancherry is held in great veneration by the entire Gowda Saraswath Brahmin community of Goan origin (Konkani) living in different parts of Kerala. The temple dedicated to Sree Venkateswara or Venkatapathy of Thirumala Hills, is unique in architecture. The Jains too have a temple at Mattancherry dedicated to Vardhamana Mahavira in the model of Rajasthan temples in architecture.

The important public buildings and institutions are situated in Ernakulam. The Durbar Hall and the Secretariat of the erstwhile Cochin State, the High Court, and the Maharaja's College are some among them. The Siva temple situated here is the most important Hindu shrine in the city. The Sree Krishna temple at Ravipuram is also quite well known.

The Bolghatty Island, well known for its scenic beauty is situated about 270 metres north-west of Ernakulam. It was formerly the seat of the British Resident but now it is a Tourist Bungalow.

The population of the city according to the 1971 Census is 439,066 the highest among the cities of Kerala. In extent also it stands first with an area of 94.88 sq. km. Although some of the most crowded centres in the State are found in Cochin the overall density of population is only 4,628 persons per sq. km., whereas the density of population in Trivandrum city is 5,467. The sex ratio is comparatively low, the number of females per 1,000 males being only 951.



BOLGHATTY PALACE—A TOURIST RESORT

All roads lead to Cochin. It is the most important centre of trade and commerce in the State with facilities for export and import throughout the year. The city is connected by metre gauge railway line from regions in the south and by broad gauge line from north. But Cochin harbour itself is served by both broad gauge and metre gauge. The work on the conversion of the existing metre gauge line connecting Ernakulam with Trivandrum into broad gauge is now in progress. Extensive navigation facilities by backwaters are available to and from Cochin. The Port itself dominates all transportation facilities. Several improvements were made to the Port from time to time. The Port of Cochin plays an important role in the economy of the State and its improvement is included as an item in the successive Five Year

Plans. Cochin is also served by daily air service from Bombay and the important cities in South India. Its contact with the other parts of the world has made it a truly cosmopolitan city.

The distribution of population according to religions in the city follows more or less the same pattern as the rest of the State, with the difference that the percentage of Hindus is less and that of Christians more. As a city, subject to a great deal of foreign influence, it has also smaller religious groups not found elsewhere. The Hindus account for 42.46 per cent, the Christians 39.76 per cent and the Muslims 17.21 per cent of the population, whereas the percentage of Hindus in the State is 59.41 and the Christians 21.05. There are 1,225 Jains, 294 Buddhists and 670 Sikhs in the city.

The population of the city may be divided into three broad age groups. 37.34 per cent of the population belongs to the age group 0-14 consisting of infants and children of school-going age, 57.51 per cent to the age group 15-59 comprising the working force and 5.15 per cent to the age group of 60 years and above consisting of dependents and retired persons. Out of a total population of 439,066 only 121,293 persons are gainfully employed. The workers form only 27.6 per cent of the total population or 48 per cent of the population in the age group 15-59.

The distribution of workers among the various types of employment shows that the highest percentage of workers is engaged in white collar jobs. However, there is a greater diversification of employment than in other cities, industries, trade, commerce and transport absorb a sizable number of workers. 32.4 per cent of the workers are engaged in services, 22.7 per

cent in industries, 19.8 per cent in trade and commerce and 16 per cent in transport.

The housing conditions in Cochin do not show any marked difference from those in Trivandrum. In Cochin, the strength of an average household is 6.44 as against 6.06 in Trivandrum. The number of persons per room is 1.99 in Cochin as against 2.05 in Trivandrum. About 67.1 per cent of the households own the houses they live in.

Cochin has a high percentage of literacy. It has always been a seat of learning and culture. Institutions for education are numerous both in the city and suburbs. Considering the industrial importance of the region, a new University, the University of Cochin, has been established with the emphasis on technological and managerial studies and research.

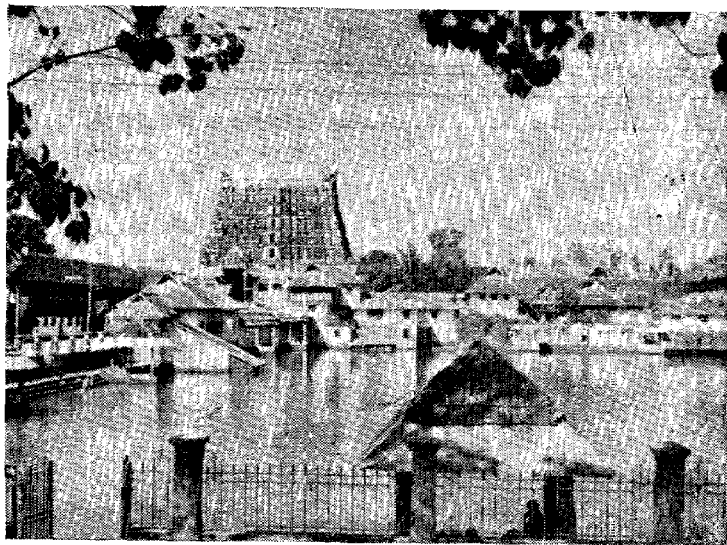
The suburbs of Cochin have become the centre for large scale industries in Kerala State. Some of the important large scale industries concentrated here are the Indian Aluminium Company, Fertilizers and Chemicals Travancore Ltd. (FACT), Travancore Cochin Chemicals (TCC), the Indian Rare Earths, the Travancore Rayons Factory, Tata Oil Mills and Premier Tyres. The inter-firm utilization of products and by-products is bound to make the concentration stronger. The rapid industrialization of the suburbs of Cochin, and the establishment of heavy industries like Ship-building Yard, Oil Refinery at Cochin and Hindustan Machine Tools Limited at Kalamassery will go a long way in assuring Cochin an important place amongst the cities in India.

TRIVANDRUM

Trivandrum, the capital of Kerala State, has an unbroken tradition of having been the metropolis of

the erstwhile Travancore and Travancore-Cochin States.

The city is said to derive its name from *Sree Ananthapuram* or *Thiru Ananthapuram* which means the domain of Sree Padmanabha, the deity of the most famous temple in the city. Sree Padmanabhaswami temple, situated inside the Fort is of great antiquity and many stories are told about the founding of this temple. Though the management of the temple was nominally vested in a council, the rulers of Travancore exercised supreme authority in the affairs of the temple and held it in profound adoration, it, being their



SREE PADMANABHASWAMI TEMPLE

household deity. Marthanda Varma, regarded as the Maker of Modern Travancore, dedicated his kingdom to Sree Padmanabha and he and his successors assumed the title of *Sree Padmanabhadasa* and ruled the State as a sacred trust in the name of Lord Padmanabha. The temple with its seven-storeyed *Gopuram* is a

remarkable specimen of South Indian architecture of the Dravidian style. The corridors of the temple are lined by 324 carved beautiful granite pillars.

In the first census report of the State it is described as a 'very opulent and extensive town situated on rising ground between valleys of wet cultivation and shaded by groves of coconut and other trees'. The city has preserved much of its scenic beauty inspite of the numerous structures of brick and concrete which have replaced natural vegetation to some extent. It is still fringed by paddy fields and dotted by a large number of coconut trees.

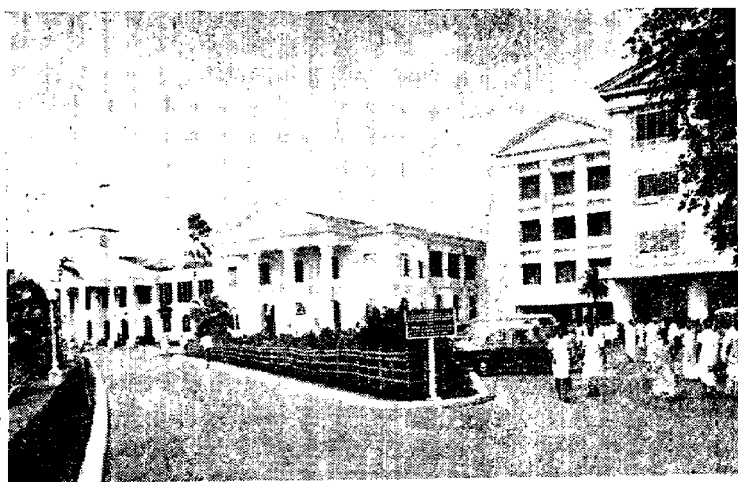
Though a coastal city, its ground level varies from 0 to 76 metres above the mean sea-level. Trivandrum shares the hospitable climate of the rest of Kerala, the special features being, a comparatively low incidence of rainfall, uniform temperature moderated by the sea, and a high percentage of humidity.

Trivandrum does not occupy a geographically central place in the State. It is the headquarters of the southern-most district of the State. But it is within easy reach of the northern boundary of the State by road, railway and waterway. It is also connected to the other important cities in India by railway and airway. Prior to the development of the faster modes of road transport the lagoons and backwaters formed the main channel of communication in Kerala. Trivandrum is connected to Hosdurg in Cannanore district by a system of backwaters, connecting canals and navigable rivers and it is still the cheapest mode of goods transport though by no means the quickest. There is a pier at Valiathura in Trivandrum city with facilities for shipping operation for the export and import of goods only. The major roads connecting the city to the important places outside, are the Trivandrum-

Quilon road (National Highway—N.H. 47), the Trivandrum-Kottayam road (M.C. road) and the Trivandrum-Shencottah road. The National Highway (N.H. 47) also connects Trivandrum to Cape Comorin the land's end of India. There is a vast network of roads within the city and all the routes are served by the city bus service run by the Kerala State Road Transport Corporation.

The Kerala Postal Circle has its headquarters at Trivandrum. There is an automatic telephone exchange at Trivandrum. The studios of the medium wave transmitting station of the All India Radio are situated at Vazhuthacaud in the city.

Trivandrum is one of the cleanest cities in South India. Protected water supply, sewerage arrangements and electric supply were introduced at an early stage in the growth of the city. They are being improved and augmented to keep pace with the growing demand on account of the increase of population and modern



KERALA GOVERNMENT SECRETARIAT

style of living. Medical facilities here are the best that could be obtained in the State and perhaps anywhere else in India. But the bed strength of the large number of hospitals is still inadequate largely due to the influx of patients from outside the capital.

The educational institutions in the city and its outskirts serve not merely the local requirements but also the regional requirements to a large extent. Of the institutions of regional importance, the Medical and the Dental Colleges and the Ayurveda College are within the city, and the Kerala University Centre at Kariavattom and the Engineering College at Kulathoor are at the outskirts.

Trivandrum is not merely the political capital of the State but also its educational and cultural capital. 69.16 per cent of the population of the city are literate. There are a good number of libraries in the city. The Trivandrum Public Library founded in 1829 and the more recent University Library deserve special mention. There are facilities for holding conferences and cultural programmes at the Senate Hall, the Tagore Centenary Theatre, the V.J.T. Hall, the Kanakakunnu Palace, Karthika Thirunal Theatre, Vivekananda Centenary building etc. There are a good number of recreational, cultural and service organizations functioning in the city, like the Trivandrum Tennis Club, Sree Moolam Club, the Boat Club, the Golf Club, the Rifle Club, the Women's Club, the Flying Club, the Lions Club and the Rotary Club.

The population of the city according to the 1971 Census is 409,627. This represents an increase of 608 per cent over the population of 57,882 in 1901. There has been a steady increase of population during all the decades from 1901 to 1971; the higher rates in certain decades being attributable mainly to the extension of

the city limits. Two events of great importance to the city were the integration of the Travancore and Cochin States in 1949 and the formation of Kerala State in 1956. The city has met the demands of the capital of the successive larger states without much strain. The present extent of the city is 74.93 sq. km. and the density of population is 5,467 persons per sq. km.

The sex ratio in the State i.e., the number of females per 1,000 males is 1,016. In Trivandrum district the ratio is slightly less at 1,008, and still less in the urban areas of the district at 996. In the city it is only 988, the difference being not very appreciable in view of the presence of a floating population and the housing shortage.

The predominant religions in the city are, just as in the State, Hinduism, Christianity and Islam. The Hindus form 73.53 per cent, the Christians 15.97 per cent and the Muslims 10.45 per cent of the total population in the city. The percentage of Hindus in the city is higher than that in the State and that of Christians and Muslims slightly less.

36.28 per cent of the city's population is in the age group 0-14, comprising mainly of the infants and the school-going population. 5.56 per cent of the population is in the age group 60 and above. The working force is drawn from 58.16 per cent of the population in the age group 15-59. Actually, the number of workers in the city is only 114,258 or 27.89 per cent of the total population or 47.96 per cent of the population in the age group of 15-59.

The employment pattern is typically that of a metropolitan city without many industrial undertakings or large establishments of commerce and trade. Persons engaged in clerical, administrative and personal

services account for as much as 44.6 per cent of the total number of workers.

Among the cities of Kerala, the average size of the household is smallest at Trivandrum with 6.06 as against 6.44 at Cochin and 7.20 at Calicut. The housing conditions in the city are more or less the same as in the other cities. The number of persons per room is 2.05 at Trivandrum, 1.99 at Cochin and 2.67 at Calicut. 64.3 per cent of the households own the houses they live in as against 67.1 per cent at Cochin and 66.5 per cent at Calicut. This slight difference may mainly be due to the fact that a good percentage of the employees in the city are liable to be transferred to other places and many of them cannot therefore afford to put up their own houses for the brief period during which they may stay in the city.



NAPIER MUSEUM

Trivandrum city is a tourist paradise. Magnificent structures built after both the ancient and modern styles of architecture will not fail to catch the eyes of the most casual visitor. Ancient temples, palaces,

churches, mosques, statues and memorials stand side by side with the new and imposing public offices, colleges, theatres and hospitals. The Trivandrum zoo, the museum, the Sri Chithralayam, the aquarium, and the Sanghumughom beach are but a few of the numerous tourist attractions. Kovalam, the world famous tourist resort is only about 13 km. away from the city. One visitor, who voices the opinion of many, says, 'Trivandrum built on a cluster of hills between which the breeze blows up from the sea, three miles away, is one of the most visually pleasing towns in Asia and one of the cleanest'.

CALICUT

Calicut was the headquarters of the Malabar district when it formed part of the erstwhile Madras State. It continued as such in Kerala State also until 1st January 1957 when Malabar district was trifurcated into smaller revenue districts. Since then it is the headquarters of Kozhikode, one of the districts so formed.* It stands second in extent and third in population among the cities of Kerala.

The town came into prominence by about the 12th century A.D., since when it attracted travellers and traders from all over the world. It has a colourful tradition as a trading centre and glowing accounts of it are left in the writings of travellers from ancient China and Persia, not to speak of the missionaries and administrators of a not too distant past from the West, the Portuguese, the English and the French who enjoyed trading rights there at some time or other.

Calicut, according to William Logan 'was in ancient days, when the Zamorin's influence was supreme on the Malabar coast, a place of great trade. The nations of the West came here for spices, pepper and

cloth (*calico*); the Chinese even came from the East in their gigantic floating hulks. It probably rose into importance about the eleventh or twelfth century A.D. In the first half of the fourteenth century, when Shaik Ibn Batuta visited it, it was certainly a place of great trade, and so it continued till the arrival of the Portuguese in the end of the fifteenth century'.

In 1498 Vasco da Gama landed at Kappad, near Calicut. The Portuguese established a fort in Calicut in 1513. The English, the French and the Danes followed suit and the struggle for trade ended with the supremacy of the English. Calicut is still an important commercial centre and is second only to Cochin among the ports in Kerala State. The lighthouse there, was built in 1847.

Calicut is on the West Coast Highway connecting Cochin to Mangalore. It is situated almost in the middle of the northern half of the coast line of Kerala State. By its very position it commands a rich hinterland. The climate of the city is characterised by fairly high temperature, high humidity and heavy rainfall from June to October.

The port of Calicut is an open roadstead. It is about 145 km. north of Cochin. The steamers have to anchor beyond a limit of 3 km. from the shore as the sea is shallow near the coast. The port is open to foreign trade almost throughout the year with interruption during heavy rain. The railway as well as the West Coast Road go across the city. A small telephone exchange was opened at Calicut in 1925 and improvements were effected periodically. The telephone exchange was automatised in 1960. The All India Radio has a medium wave transmitting station at Calicut which went on the air in May 1950.

The Calicut Municipality was established in 1866. It was raised to the status of a municipal corporation in 1962. The population according to the 1971 Census is 333,979 representing an increase of 334 per cent within a period of seven decades. The density of population is 4,040 persons per sq. km. It is worth mentioning that the density of population in 1961 was 6,289 persons per sq. km. and the fall is only due to the extension of city limits from 30.61 sq. km. to 82.67 sq. km. since then to include some rural areas. The fact remains that areas which form the heart of the town are very overcrowded. The sex ratio is 988 as against 951 in Cochin. Trivandrum has the same sex ratio of 988.

In the city 62.10 per cent of the population are Hindus, 33.32 per cent Muslims and 4.39 per cent Christians. This is a marked deviation from the State figures in that the percentage of Muslims is greater and that of Christians much less. In the city there are a large number of temples, mosques and churches. The Sree-kanteswaram temple, the Tali temple, the Thiruvannur temple are the most well known among the temples. The two Jamat mosques on the banks of Kuttichira and the *Pazhaya Palli* are famous. The Catholic church dedicated to *Madre de Deos* (Mother of God) was built in the early part of the 18th century and the Protestant churches towards the middle of the 19th century.

38.27 per cent of the population in the city belongs to the age group 0-14, showing a larger percentage of infants and children of school-going ages than in the other cities of the State. In Trivandrum, the population in this age group form 36.28 per cent and in Cochin 37.34 per cent of the total population. It is also seen that the percentage of dependants or retired persons of sixty years or above is highest in Calicut, with 5.93 per cent compared to Cochin with 5.15 per cent and Trivandrum with 5.56 per cent.

The total number of workers in the city is 82,668 which is only 24.75 per cent of the total population or 44.4 per cent of the population in the age group 15-59. 'Other Services' which consist mainly of white collar jobs absorb 29.1 per cent of the workers. Two other important avenues of employment are trade and commerce and industries which absorb 23.7 per cent and 23.2 per cent of the workers respectively. There are a few major Government owned factories at Calicut, the Kerala Soap Factory, the Government Hydrogenation Factory and the Government Oil Factory. Calicut has also the second largest timber yard in the world located at Kallai.



KALLAI TIMBER YARD .

The size of an average household in Calicut city is 7.20 as against 6.44 in Cochin and 6.06 in Trivandrum

The number of persons per room is 2.67 in Calicut as against 1.99 in Cochin and 2.05 in Trivandrum. The above figures show that living conditions in the city are poor. 66.5 per cent of the households own the houses they live in. This compares favourably with the other cities, the figures being 67.1 per cent for Cochin and 64.3 per cent for Trivandrum.

The rate of literacy in the city is 65.38 which is the lowest among the cities of Kerala. The percentage of literacy among females is only 58.89 which is much lower than the corresponding figures for the other cities. The other cities in the State, are in the erstwhile Travancore and Cochin States which had a good lead in literacy from very early days.

ALLEPPEY

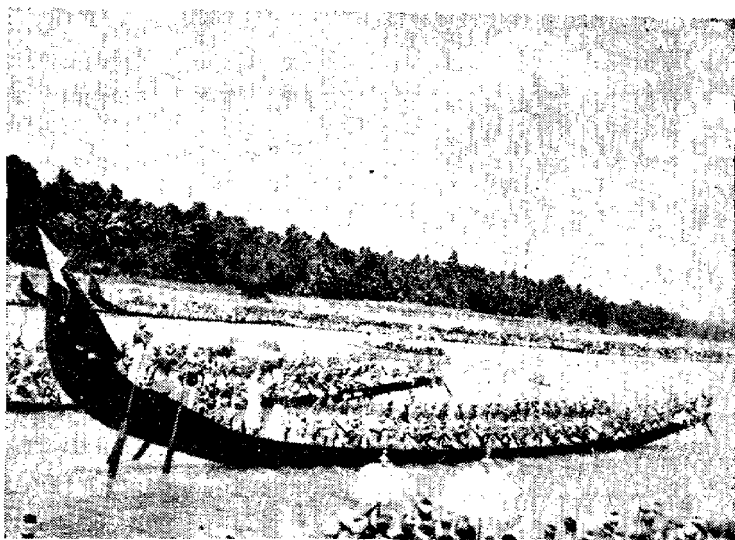
The town has lent its name to a new district constituted on 17th August 1957 in Kerala State. Alleppey district was carved out of Quilon and Kottayam districts and it is the smallest district in the State. It stands foremost in literacy and density of population. This is the only district in the State which lies entirely within the lowland and the midland regions without any area in the highlands. With hardly any hilly area or forest land, practically every part of the district is thickly populated.

The presence of the Arabian Sea on one side, the Vembanad lake, and a net work of intersecting canals has won for the town the appellation of the 'Venice of the East'. Till about the close of the 18th century, this place was a mere jungle. The town was founded by Raja Kesava Das, Dewan of Travancore in 1762. He built warehouses, constructed canals, and invited merchants from Bombay and Sind to settle down there. The climate of the city is hot and moist, and there is an abundance of rainfall for more than half the year round.

Alleppey continued to be the chief commercial port of Travancore, 'its greatest advantage as an emporium arising from its singularly natural backwater formed in the open roadstead and the long and wide mud bank which helps large vessels to anchor safely even in the stormiest of weather'. It has a pier 305 m. long and a lighthouse whose light is visible to a distance of about 25 km. seaward.

The port is only about 60 km. south of Cochin. With the integration of Travancore and Cochin States and the formation of the Kerala State, Alleppey has lost its place as the first sea port to Cochin. Still it is famous as a trading centre for coir yarn, coir matting and coconut oil. The steamers anchor about 3 to 5 km. away from the shore and cargo boats ply between the pier and the steamers for loading and unloading.

Road and water transport are the chief means of communication within the city and to places outside. There is no rail or air link to the town. The shipping operations for the transport of goods are carried out mostly from September to May. The National Highway (N.H. 47) connects the city to Quilon and Cochin. Alleppey is enroute the West Coast Canal which connects Trivandrum with Hosdrug. Canals fit for navigation of small boats and country boats connect the city to Kottayam, Changanacherry and the other important towns. Alleppey is the headquarters of the Kerala State Water Transport Department. An enchanting water carnival and regatta is conducted at the nearby Punnamada *Kayal* (Vatta *Kayal*) every year as part of the Independence Day Celebrations. The Rolling Trophy made of silver was presented by Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, the first Prime Minister of India. The trophy is awarded to the winner of the snake boat (*Chundan*) race, every year.



SNAKE BOAT RACE

Alleppey became a conservancy town in 1893-94 and it was upgraded as a municipal town in 1919-20. The population of the town in 1901 was 24,918 and in seven decades it has gone up to 160,166 representing an increase of 543 per cent. The extent of the city is 46.77 sq. km. and the density of population is 3,425 persons per sq. km. This happens to be the lowest compared with the other cities of Kerala, inspite of the fact that Alleppey district, with Alleppey as its headquarters, is the most thickly populated district in the State. The sex ratio is 994 as against 986 in the Quilon Municipal town.

In the town 50.02 per cent of the population are Hindus, 27.29 per cent Christians and 22.60 per cent Muslims. There are 117 Jains in the city.

Infants and school-going children in the age group 0-14 account for 37.1 per cent of the total population of the city. 5.8 per cent of the population is in the age group

of 60 and above consisting mainly of retired persons and dependents. 57.1 per cent of the population belongs to the age group 15-59 which mainly supplies the working force. However the actual number of workers in the city is 41,189 which is 25.7 per cent of the total population or only 45 per cent of the population in the age group 15-59.

Alleppey, with a rate of 70.04 per cent stands foremost in literacy among the cities of Kerala.

Household and other industries, trade and commerce, administrative, clerical and personal services are the chief avenues of employment in the city. 28.8 per cent of the workers are engaged in household and other industries, 24.9 per cent in clerical, administrative and personal services and 20.9 per cent in trade and commerce.



COIR IN MAKING

Among the cities in Kerala, the percentage of households owning the houses in which they live, is highest in Alleppey with 78.6 per cent as against 65.9 per cent in Quilon, 64.3 per cent in Trivandrum, 67.1 per cent in Cochin and 66.5 per cent in Calicut. The average size of a household is 6.36. The average number of persons per room is 2.35 in Alleppey as against 2.00 in Quilon.

Alleppey, 'The Venice of the East', has seen some hard times. Its traditional industries and exports like coir yarn, coir mattings, coconut oil are liable to violent set-backs due to the fluctuating price and unsteady demand in the world market. It cannot compete with Cochin, a natural all-weather harbour, on the same coast in shipping operations. However, attempts are being made to revive traditional industries and to start new industries on modern lines.

QUILON

'If you saw Quilon, you would need no house any more' is a time-honoured saying. Quilon, it is said, in its days of glory, had so much to offer to its visitors that overwhelmed by its enchantment and splendour, they became oblivious of the homes they left behind and settled down there with no regrets.

The term 'Quilon' is an anglicized form of the Malayalam word 'Kollam'. But the origin of the name has not been fixed beyond doubt. Early writers refer to it by different names 'Kaulam', 'Coloen', 'Colam' etc. The name of the town is associated with 'Kollam Era' which began in 825 A.D. commemorating probably a great event connected with the town.

According to K. P. Padmanabha Menon, Quilon “was at one time a great political and commercial centre. The Nestorian Christians found here an asylum on their arrival on the coast. It was the seat of the first Roman Catholic Bishopric in India. It enjoyed a large trade with China and Arabia and had also political relations with Kublai Khan, the great Mongol Emperor of China. Its port has been described by early travellers as one of the largest in the world, and its markets the first in India”. It is even believed by some that ‘Chinnakada’ which in the present form means ‘Small Bazaar’ was once actually a Chinese pocket in the town and that the name is derived from ‘Cheenakada’ which means ‘Chinese Bazaar’. According to the tradition cherished by the Christians of Kerala, one of the seven churches founded by St. Thomas (52 A.D.) was located at Quilon. It is certain that Quilon Port with its plentiful supply of spices from the surrounding places was well known in the ancient world of trade.

Velu Thampi Dalawa who organized a heroic rebellion against the British did much to bring Quilon into prominence, both politically and commercially. He constructed the Huzur Cutcherry, a palace and a temple. He revived the commercial activity by inviting merchants from Tirunelveli and Madurai to settle down there. Under his care, Quilon became a great centre of trade and administration.

The Portuguese established a trading settlement at Quilon in 1502 A.D. It passed into the hands of the Dutch in 1661. The English captured it in 1795 and as a result of the treaty between the English East India Company and Travancore, an English force was stationed at Quilon.

Lieutenants Ward and Conner in their *Memoir of the Survey of the Travancore and Cochin States* (1820

A.D.) describe the town as follows:—"Kolum is remarkable in the legends of Malabar for fixing the chronological era of Travancore calculated from the foundation of the city now 995 years ago. It is a populous town, in magnitude perhaps superceded by none in the province. It arose on the site of a small Nair village on the coast, it has since it became a Military Post or Cantonment, acquired vast improvements, and to it owes its present importance. Previous to it, Tungumshery (present Tangasseri) a Portuguese settlement, was the station of the British troops".

Quilon is a coastal city, situated 67 km. north of Trivandrum and 152 km. south of Cochin. It is washed by the Arabian Sea on the west and south and has the Ashtamudi lake on the north. Unlike Trivandrum, Quilon is almost flat, slanting only slightly towards the sea. The temperature is high but is moderated by sea-breeze. There is heavy rainfall due to the south-west monsoon and north-east monsoon.

Quilon is connected to Trivandrum, the capital of the State by rail, road and backwaters. It is a major junction in the Southern Railway. The Tirunelveli Quilon Railway was opened in 1904. The railway was extended to Trivandrum in 1918, and Quilon-Ernakulam railway was opened for traffic in 1958. The National Highway (N.H.47) connects the town to Trivandrum and Cochin.

The importance of Quilon port began to decline with the rise of Cochin and Calicut. It is an open roadstead on the Arabian Sea. Usually steamers anchor about 800 to 1,600 metres off the shore. A lighthouse was established at Tangasseri in 1902. Its light is visible to a distance of about 29 km. No passenger traffic is handled by the port. The export is mainly cashew kernels and the import, cashewnuts from Africa.

In 1864, the first post office under the British Indian Postal system was opened at Quilon. Already, the indigenous postal system known as the *Anchel* was functioning in the district and it continued to do so until its merger with the Indian Postal Department in 1951. An automatic telephone exchange was established in 1950 at Quilon.

Quilon was raised to the status of a Municipal town in 1921. According to the 1971 Census it has attained the status of a census city, a town with a population of 1 lakh or above. It is the smallest city in Kerala both in extent and population. The area of the city is 18.48 sq. km. and the population is 124,208. With 6,721 persons per sq. km. it leads the other cities in Kerala in the density of population. Seven decades ago the population was only 15,691. It has registered an increase of 692 per cent in 70 years. The sex ratio is 986 as against 994 in Alleppey and 988 in Trivandrum.

There are very ancient temples, mosques and churches in the city. The Anandavalliswaram and Asramam temples, the Chinnakada *Palli* and the churches of the Syrian Christians and Latin Catholics are of historical importance. As Lieutenants Ward and Conner noted Quilon was originally a Nair village. But Christians and Muslims settled down there from very early days. At present Hindus account for 58.06 per cent, Christians 25.57 per cent and Muslims 16.24 per cent of the total population of the town.

The distribution of the population by broad age groups indicates some of the pressures on the economy of the town. 38.25 per cent of the population belongs to the age group 0-14. This is fairly high and it indicates the need for a large number of educational institutions to absorb all the children of the school-going age.

The working force is supplied from 56.86 per cent of the population in the age group 15-59. The balance 4.89 per cent of the population is in the age group 60 years and above.

The occupational distribution of the gainfully employed will give us an insight into the economic structure of the town. Only 26.72 per cent of the total population of the town is gainfully employed. It is seen that the rate of participation in work is comparatively low. The working population form 47 per cent of the population in the age group 15-59, from which the workers are mostly drawn. The major avenues of employment are in the field of household and other industries, other services and trade and commerce. 27.1 per cent of the workers are engaged in household and other industries, 26.5 per cent in other services and 19.6 per cent in trade and commerce.

The size of an average household in the city is 6.39 as against 6.36 in Alleppey and 6.06 in Trivandrum. There are two persons per room which compares favourably with the position in the other cities. 65.9 per cent of the households own the houses in which they live. The percentage of ownership is more than in Trivandrum but less than in Alleppey.

Quilon is the headquarters of the district of the same name and the main centre in the district for education, health services, industries and commerce and trade. The rate of literacy in the city is 68.22 per cent. The city can boast of a good number of big high schools and three Arts and Science colleges. The first Engineering College in the private sector in the State was started at Kilikolloor in the suburb of the city. The Municipality maintains its own library and gives grant-in-aid to a number of libraries and reading rooms in the city.

The economic prosperity of the city is dependent on its industries, commerce and trade for which it was famous. The major industries located at Quilon are



PROCESSING OF CASHEW

cashewnut and textile factories, saw mills, oil mills, and brick and tile factories.

The growth of towns is a fascinating study. We know that some of the larger towns of today will expand their jurisdictions in course of time. The adjoining areas will get merged in the town. This gave rise to the new concept of 'Standard Urban Area' in the 1971 Census. The Standard Urban Area may be defined as the projected growth area of a city or a town as it would be in 1991 taking into account not only the towns and villages which will get merged into it but also the intervening areas which are potentially urban. The demarcation

of Standard Urban Areas was done with the assistance of the Town Planning Department of the State and the Central Town and Country Planning Organization. All the municipal towns with an estimated population of 50,000 or more by 1971 had qualified to be treated as Standard Urban Areas. There are 13 Standard Urban Areas in the State which include the five cities and eight other municipal towns viz. Palghat, Trichur, Tellicherry, Kottayam, Cannanore, Badagara, Kayamkulam and Changanacherry.

CHAPTER III

Are the number of men and women balanced? How old are we?

We no longer argue whether one sex is superior to the other. It is altogether an outmoded question. But are the males and females equal in number? It is a vital question. We expect that the number of men and women are balanced at all times and at all places. Serious imbalance would no doubt cause certain social problems. If men are in excess, at least a few will not be able to get partners and in certain societies the 'bride price' will go up. If the reverse is the case there will be a keener chase after eligible men and yet a few women will have to remain lonely spinsters. In normal times, we do not anticipate such an eventuality. Actually, the equality in number of males and females in all countries and at all times is an ideal seldom attained. It depends on various factors over which we have little control. Even if an equal number of male and female babies are born, their chances of survival at various periods of life are very unequal. They face different types of hazards during different periods of life. Sex selectivity in certain types of mortality like maternal mortality is but one among them. We are more uncertain about selectivity of sexes in abnormal deaths. War usually takes a heavier toll of men than women. Migration also brings about imbalance in the numbers of males and females. Our assumption that male and

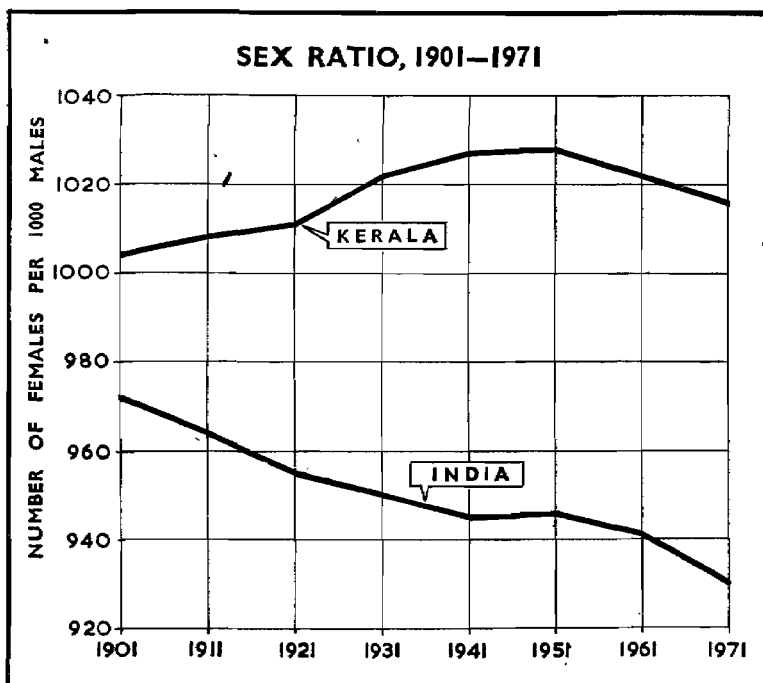
female babies are born in equal numbers, is itself wrong. Then balance if achieved, is the result of unequal male births and female births, modified by unequal incidence of normal and abnormal deaths. It is a wonder that the balance is not often seriously disturbed.

'Sex ratio' gives in realistic terms a comparison between the number of males and females in the population. In the Indian census, following the practice in the United Kingdom, the number of females per 1,000 males is taken as the sex ratio. In the United States of America, the number of males per 100 females is calculated for the sake of comparison.

The sex ratio, in India, is 930 females per 1,000 males according to the 1971 Census. There are large variations between different parts of the World in sex ratio. There is an excess of females in the United Kingdom, U.S.A. and Japan. In Canada, Sri Lanka and Pakistan males are in excess. In every census, sex ratio in India was low. Before this pattern was confirmed in successive censuses, various arguments used to be put forward to explain the chronic deficiency of females in India. The low status accorded to women in Indian society, the tendency to conceal the existence of unmarried young females, and a higher mortality rate among females were some of the reasons given for the low sex ratio. Now we have no difficulty in accepting it as a pattern found in many other parts of the world also.

The population census of Kerala tells a different story about the pattern of sex ratio. In 1971, there are 1,016 females per 1,000 males in Kerala. No other state except the Union Territory of Dadra and Nagar Haveli has a predominance of the fair sex. In Punjab the sex ratio is 865 but our neighbouring states of Tamil Nadu and Mysore have higher sex ratios at 978 and 957 respectively but there also the males are in excess.

In Kerala, in the previous censuses also there was excess of females in varying numbers. In 1941 the sex ratio was 1,027 and it was 1,022 in 1961. There seems



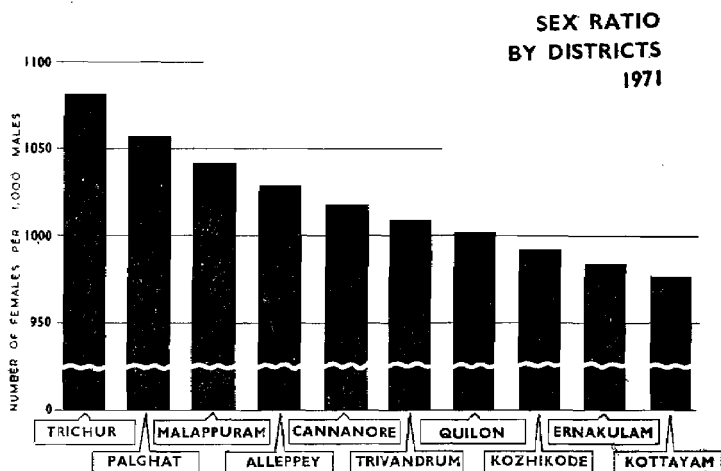
to be a tendency for equalization. Just as a low sex ratio has been the pattern in the country as a whole, a high ratio has been the pattern in Kerala and this hardly requires any explanation. However the pattern of social life in Kerala, the high status given to women in society, and the system of female descent prevalent in the State had ruled out any tendency to ignore the existence of females or undercount them.

What are the factors that affect the sex ratio? Why does it change from country to country and within a country from region to region? A basic fact is that males and females are not born in equal numbers. Secondly they do not die in equal numbers in any age

group. A third factor is that among migrant population, males and females will not be equal as a rule. Men go in search of jobs or means of livelihood and bring their womanfolk to their new place of settlement after they feel reasonably secure in the new surroundings. In Kerala, the imbalance due to emigration or immigration is negligible. As a matter of fact there is said to be a male excess at birth. As if to compensate for this natural deficiency in females, male infants die in larger numbers than female infants during the first year of their life. Thereafter the proportion between males and females goes on changing due to difference in mortality rates. There seems to be no uniformity in the rate of mortality of the males and females either in different places in the same country or in the same place in different age groups. We may assume that the strain and stress of life tells upon males more heavily at some period and on females at some other periods of their life. Much had been done to prevent maternal mortality and perhaps better health services in the State and a much higher literacy rate among women than anywhere else in the country would have contributed towards the longer life and better health of the females in Kerala.

There was an excess of females in Kerala according to all the censuses from 1901 to 1971. But in the districts there was no uniformity and in some districts actually males were in excess. In the areas which formed the present districts of Cannanore, Malappuram, Palghat, and Trichur the sex ratio was in favour of females but in all the other six districts males outnumbered females in 1901. The position has since then undergone a change in favour of females. According to the 1971 Census, only in three districts Kozhikode, Ernakulam and Kottayam males outnumber females. In Quilon the number is almost balanced, the sex ratio being 1,001. In all the other districts, the sex ratio is in

favour of the fair sex. Cannanore, Malappuram, Palghat and Trichur maintained the excess of the females during the seven decades from 1901 more or less steadily. Only one district, Kottayam maintained a steady predominance of the male sex during the same period. In the case of the other districts there were deficiencies and excesses of either sex during the period in question. Trichur has the highest sex ratio with 1,081 and Kottayam the lowest with 976. Quilon is having the most balanced sex ratio with 1,001.



The sex ratios differ widely in the taluks in the State. It ranges between 913 in South Wynad and 1,162 in Chavakkad taluk. There are 20 taluks where males outnumber females and 36 taluks where females outnumber males. In five taluks, the ratio is less than 950 and in two, more than 1,100. There are no taluks in Malappuram, Palghat, Trichur and Alleppey districts where the sex ratio is in favour of the males.

As is to be expected the sex ratio is generally lower in the urban areas. In the urban areas non-agricultural occupations predominate. Hence there is very little

scope for members of the family to participate in the occupation of the head of the household. Moreover people go to the urban areas in search of employment and they take their families with them only after their position is secure. With the exception of Kozhikode and Kottayam districts the sex ratio is smaller in the urban areas than in the rural areas of the same district. The deficiency of the females is more notable in the urban areas of the more industrialized district like Ernakulam. Sex ratios of the two important industrial centres in Ernakulam district, Eloor and Kalamassery are only 852 and 889 respectively.

Out of the cities in the State, Cochin has the lowest sex ratio, 951. There seems to be no relationship between the functional classification and sex ratio of the cities in our state. The reason appears to be that no city could be described as predominantly unifunctional except Trivandrum which specialises in 'services'. Among the cities the highest sex ratio is in Alleppey. It is an industrial-cum-service-cum-commercial town. Its main industry is making of coir products. In this industry women are perhaps more adept than men and so deficiency of females is not likely to arise.

According to physical features the State can be divided into three regions, the highland, the midland and the lowland. The sex ratios of these regions are 970, 1,024 and 1,027 respectively. The sex ratio of the highland is the lowest and the lowland the highest. A tendency towards equalization is noticed when we compare the sex ratios in 1961 and 1971, of the same regions. While in the highland the ratio increased from 963 to 970, in the midland and lowland it decreased from 1,030 to 1,024 and from 1,033 to 1,027 respectively.

Why are the sex ratios different in the three natural divisions of the State? What is the reason for the narrow-

ing down of the difference during the last decade? The explanation may perhaps be found in the history of the settlement pattern in the State. Our coastal areas had sizable settlements from very early days. Our trade and contact with foreign countries were through the sea ports which were well known all over the civilized world. But the goods exported were the products of the midland and even the highland which were of course not thickly populated at that time. The midland was colonized earlier than the highland. It is the acute pressure of population on land both in the lowland and the plains that forced people to colonize the highland where they had to face greater hazards. It is true that certain isolated areas in the highland were opened up for plantations by adventurous persons even earlier. But the hilly regions were only sparsely populated until recently when planned colonization took place. As it usually happens, the migrants do not take their families with them for quite some time and so a deficiency of females is to be expected in the new settlements. Migration took place gradually from the coastal areas to the plains and then to the hills and the sex ratio is therefore highest in the lowland and lowest in the highland. However the matter is not so simple as that. Modifications in the pattern do take place due to other forces also at work such as industrialization and urbanization of the area within the natural divisions to unequal extents.

There seems to be no appreciable difference in the sex ratios among the followers of the major religions in the State. Among the Hindus and the Muslims women outnumber men, the sex ratios being 1,025 and 1,009 respectively. The number of men and women are well balanced among Christians with a sex ratio of 999. The smaller religious groups have a low sex ratio of 570. This is understandable because they are migrants, mostly in temporary or transferable employments and have no

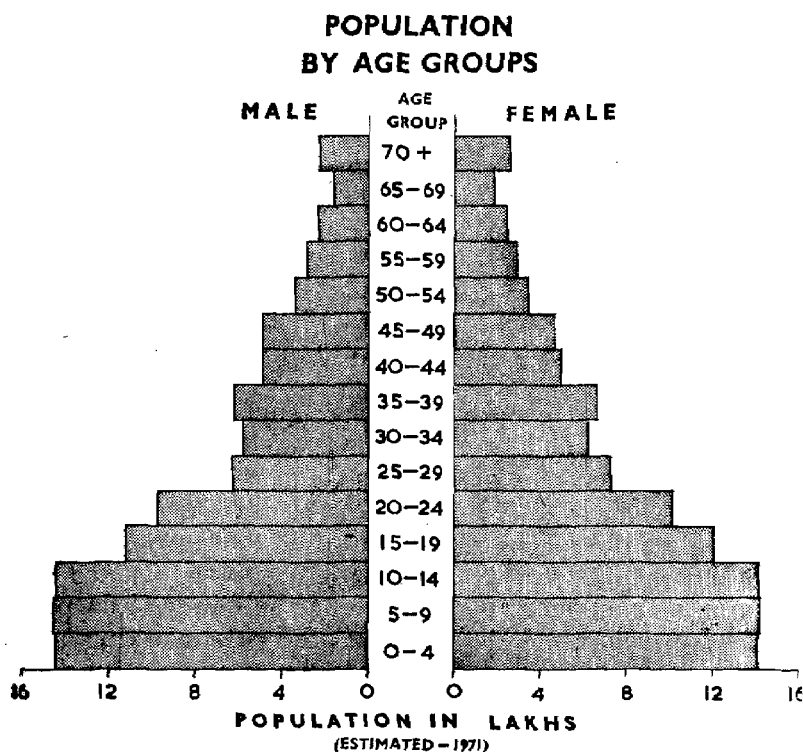
idea of settling down permanently in the State. They form only 0.04 per cent of the population and hence the very low sex ratio of this group does not make any impression on the high sex ratio in the State.

In the planning of economic and social development, due consideration has to be given to the size of the population as well as its age structure. Persons in each age group have their own special requirements and rights. The children require educational facilities, the young people want employment, and the old are in need of special medical attention. Planning has therefore to lay emphasis on one or the other aspect according to the age structure of the population.

The age structure of the population is not everywhere the same. It is estimated that in 1965, 37 per cent of the world population was made up of children under 14 years of age. During the same year, whereas children under 14 years of age constituted only 28 per cent of the total population in the more developed countries, they formed about 42 per cent of the population in the less developed countries. The problems created by this striking contrast in age structure are too serious to be ignored. In the other age groups also the contrast was noticeable. The more developed countries had a higher percentage of working force and also old people in their population. In the more developed countries aging of population is perhaps a more serious problem than giving education to the children and employment to the young. The contrast between the age structures of the more developed and less developed countries is likely to continue especially in the lower age groups.

Let us divide the population into three functional age groups (i) children below 15 years of age (ii) workers between 15 and 59 years of age and (iii) elderly persons of 60 years and above. The first group consists of infants

between 0 and 4 years of age and school-going children between 5 and 14 years of age. The workers in a country are drawn from the age group of 15 to 59 years. Some of them may still be studying and many of them may not be engaged in any occupation. However they are the potential workers on whom the rest of the population depends. The elderly persons will be mostly retired persons and those who are unable to work any longer. The comparative strength of each group has serious implications on the social and economic conditions in the country.



According to the 1971 Census 40.26 per cent of the population of Kerala were children under 15 years of age, 53.51 per cent were in the working age group and

6.22 per cent were elderly persons. The comparative strengths of functional age groups are more or less the same in the whole country and in the other states in India. In Tamil Nadu the percentage of children was slightly less and in Assam and Haryana much higher.

Are the potential citizens of the country getting sufficient attention from their parents and the State? Hardly so, since the burden is too heavy and the resources very limited. While infants and children of school-going age form 40.26 per cent of the population of Kerala, they form only 22.96, 25.61 and 31.11 per cent respectively of the population of United Kingdom, Japan and U.S.A. With a higher percentage of children in the population and limited resources, it is no wonder that children are not getting the attention they deserve. There are of course other countries in the world also in the same predicament. Pakistan and many African countries cannot also afford to give a square deal to the children.

The change, if any, in the age structure of the population is also significant in making plans for the future. In 1961, the children formed 42.63 per cent, those in the working age groups 51.52 per cent and elderly persons 5.84 per cent of the population of Kerala. By 1971, while the percentage of children came down, the percentage of workers and elderly persons increased slightly. This is a welcome trend but still our state is far behind the developed countries in having a proper balance in the functional age groups. Among the males 41.04 per cent are children, 52.99 per cent are in the working age group and 5.97 per cent are elderly persons. Among females 39.5 per cent are children, 54.03 per cent in the working age group and 6.47 per cent in the age group of sixty years and above.

The population can be divided into workers and non-workers based on the functional age groups.

Children under 15 years and elderly persons of sixty years and above are grouped as non-workers. All the persons in the age group of 15 to 59 years are classified as workers. It does not mean that all of them are actually engaged in economically productive work but they are potential workers or they form the working force of a country. With a classification based on functional age groups, we can calculate in mathematical terms the share of the economic burden on the workers in a country. How many non-workers are they supporting? If they are supporting too many non-workers, they have to bear a heavy burden and they may not be able to maintain their dependents in reasonable comfort. The ratio of the economically inactive population to the number of workers is called the dependency ratio and it is a useful index to measure the economic condition of the population.

In India the dependency ratio is 0.92 and in our state 0.87. As a rule the ratio is high in less developed countries and low in the more developed countries. In Japan it is 0.55 whereas in Pakistan it is 1.02. In U.K., U.S.S.R. and U.S.A. the dependency ratio is much less than that of India.

The figures given as the dependency ratios do not speak the whole truth. It is calculated on the assumption that the persons included in the working age group of 15 to 59 are actually workers. This is more or less true in the case of the developed countries and far from true in the case of less developed countries like India where unemployment is rampant. If the dependency ratio is calculated based on the actual number of workers, the position of Kerala will be much worse than what is represented by the functional age groups.

CHAPTER IV

How many of us can read and write ?

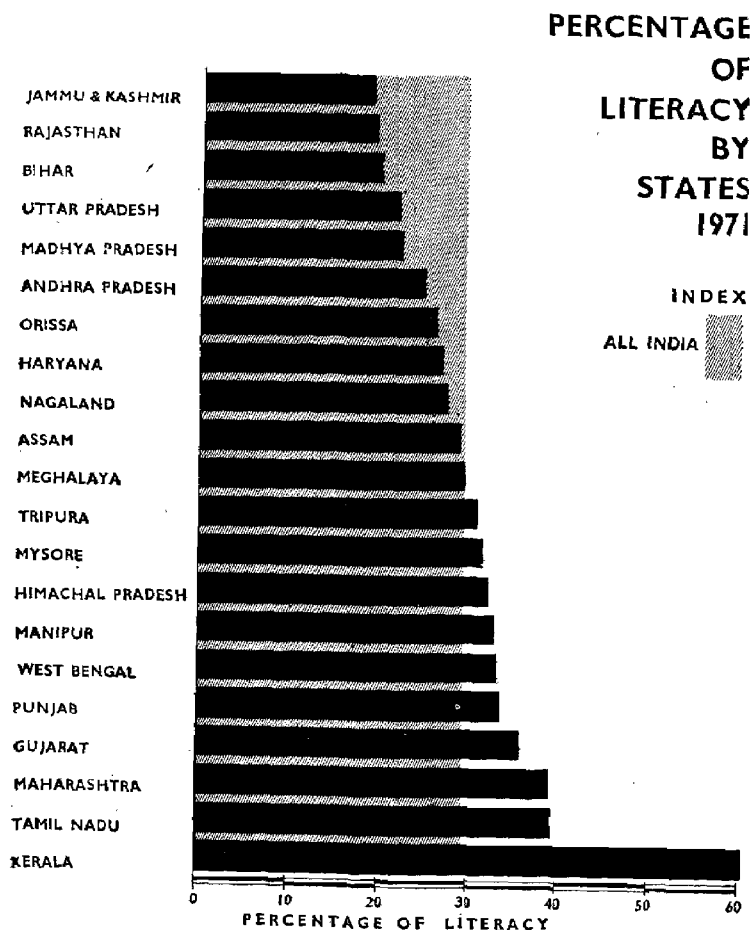
“A high degree of education without the ability to fulfil the expectations that education nurtures is one of the most explosive factors in Kerala today”. The above observation by a keen student of Kerala history and culture would give the impression that Kerala suffers from too much of education or atleast education in the wrong direction rather than the lack of it. There is no doubt that Kerala stands head and shoulders above the rest of India in the matter of literacy and the craze for education continues unabated. The long procession of children going to school in every part of the State in the morning is an unforgettable sight even to a casual visitor to the State. But has the enthusiasm for literacy penetrated the masses? Is our impression superficial and perhaps prejudiced by the large scale unemployment among the educated? We shall soon see.

In the population census conducted every ten years, certain basic information about each individual is gathered. Whether the individual is literate or not is an important question at every census. The population can therefore be divided into literate and illiterate every 10 years and the progress of literacy properly assessed. A person who can read and write is considered a literate. In the actual application, this definition of ‘literacy’ is capable of various interpretations. In the earlier censuses the assessment of the degree of proficiency in reading

and writing was left to the discretion and even idiosyncrasies of the census officials. Some of them insisted on a minimum educational standard to consider an individual as literate. Some others were of the view that the ability to write a letter to a friend and read his reply was a good test of literacy. Hence the figures of literates in different regions of the country and at different censuses, were not strictly comparable. In the recent censuses, the term 'literacy' has been more precisely defined. A person who could both read and write with understanding was considered a 'literate' in the 1971 Census. No minimum educational standard or attendance in school was insisted upon. Children of 4 years of age and below were treated as illiterates even if they were able to read and write a few words and were attending schools. In the 1971 Census, the highest level of education attained by a literate was also ascertained through the Individual Slip. In the case of persons having both general and technical qualifications of the same level, the technical qualification was given preference and that alone was recorded. An attempt was also made to collect detailed information about graduates, post graduates and holders of technical diploma by getting the "Degree holder and Technical Personnel cards" filled up by them.

According to the 1971 Census, the rate of literacy in our state is 60.42 as against 29.45 per cent in the whole country. Kerala has a literacy rate more than double that of the country, and has no close rival in the field. The creditable achievement in this field is a tribute to the enlightened policy followed by those in power in the State. Tamil Nadu stands a poor second with a literacy rate of only 39.46. Other states are far behind Kerala in literacy. Less than one-fifth of the people of Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir and Rajasthan can read and write. Some of the Union Territories have fairly high rates of literacy, notably Chandigarh and Delhi with 61.56 and 56.61 per cent respectively. Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Arunachal Pradesh are exceptions with very

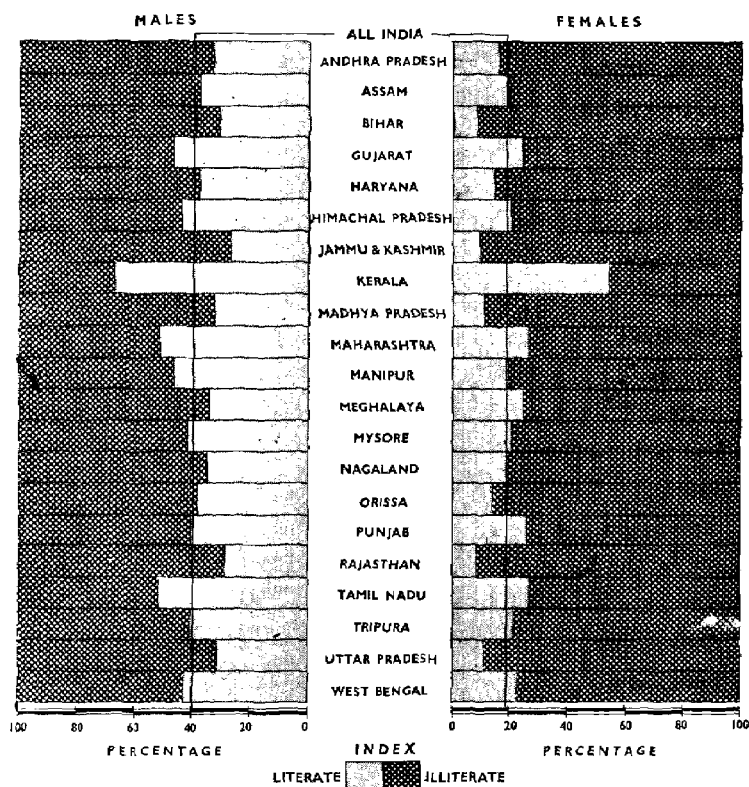
low literacy rates of 14.97 and 11.29 respectively. However the population of the Union Territories is too small to have an appreciable impact on the general literacy rate.



The cultural progress of a country can be judged by the status accorded to women in society. Women can occupy positions of responsibility in social and public life only if they have the same opportunities as men for

education. Our state can justly be proud of the high rate of literacy of women and the lead it has given to the other states in India in this field. In all the states in India, the rate of literacy is higher among males and in many states it is twice or thrice that of the females. In the whole country the males are twice as

PERCENTAGE OF LITERATES IN EACH SEX BY STATES, 1971



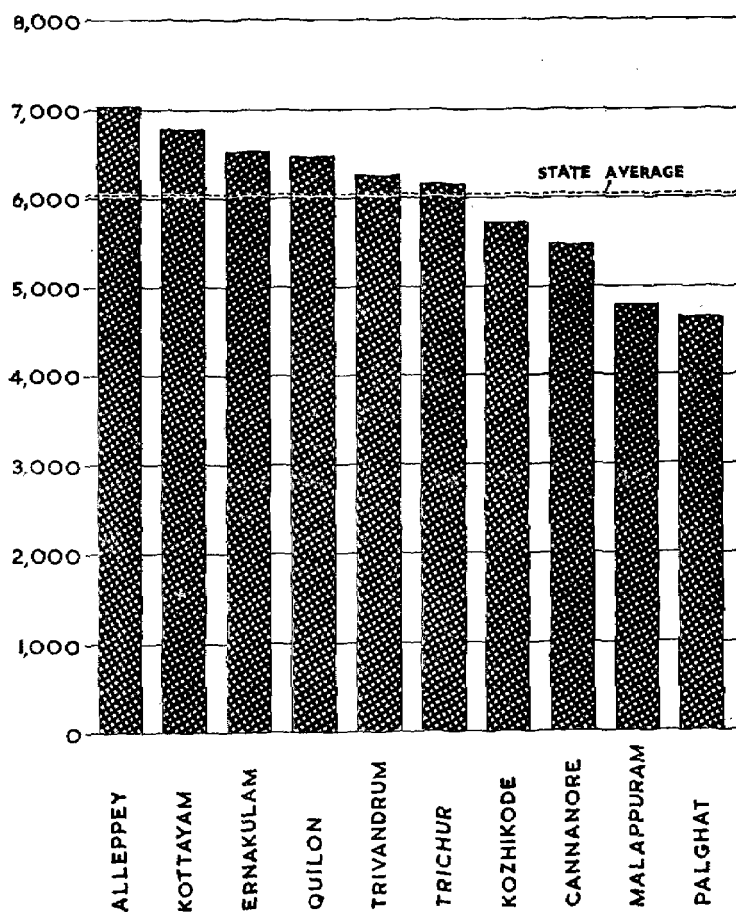
literate as females. In Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir and Rajasthan about 90 per cent of the females cannot read and write. In Tamil Nadu, which stands second both in male and female literacy, only 26.86 per cent of the

females are literate whereas 51.78 per cent of the males are literate. In Kerala 54.31 per cent of the females are literate while 66.62 per cent of the males are literate. The difference in percentage of literacy in Kerala is only 12 whereas in Tamil Nadu it is 25. More than anything else it is this near equality in literacy between males and females that reflects the progressive outlook of the State. It is likely that even this slight inequality will be wiped out in the near future. But not so in the case of the other states in India. They have to go a long way before they can achieve a high rate of literacy and remove the wide disparity between the rates of literacy of males and females.

As is to be expected, the literacy rate is higher in the urban areas of the State than in the rural areas. It is 66.31 per cent in the urban areas and 59.28 per cent in the rural areas. The difference in percentage is only about 7, negligible when compared with the wide disparity between the urban and rural literacy rates in the other states. The difference between the percentage of urban and rural literacy is nearly 29 for the whole of India, around 25 in the neighbouring states of Mysore and Tamil Nadu and more than 30 in Madhya Pradesh and many other states. In Alleppey district of our state the literacy rate is actually higher in the rural areas than in the urban areas of the district. Perhaps in no other place in the world, the rural areas will be ahead of urban areas in literacy. Incidentally Alleppey is the most literate district in Kerala and it shows that in order to come to the lead in literacy, our village dwellers who form the vast majority of the population should not be neglected. There are two special features which have contributed to the unchallenged leadership of Kerala in literacy. The women are not far behind the men in education. Secondly education is not the monopoly of the urban population. The rural population is close behind the urban population in the ability to

read and write and at least in one district the gap between them has been bridged.

LITERATES PER 10,000 POPULATION BY DISTRICTS, 1971

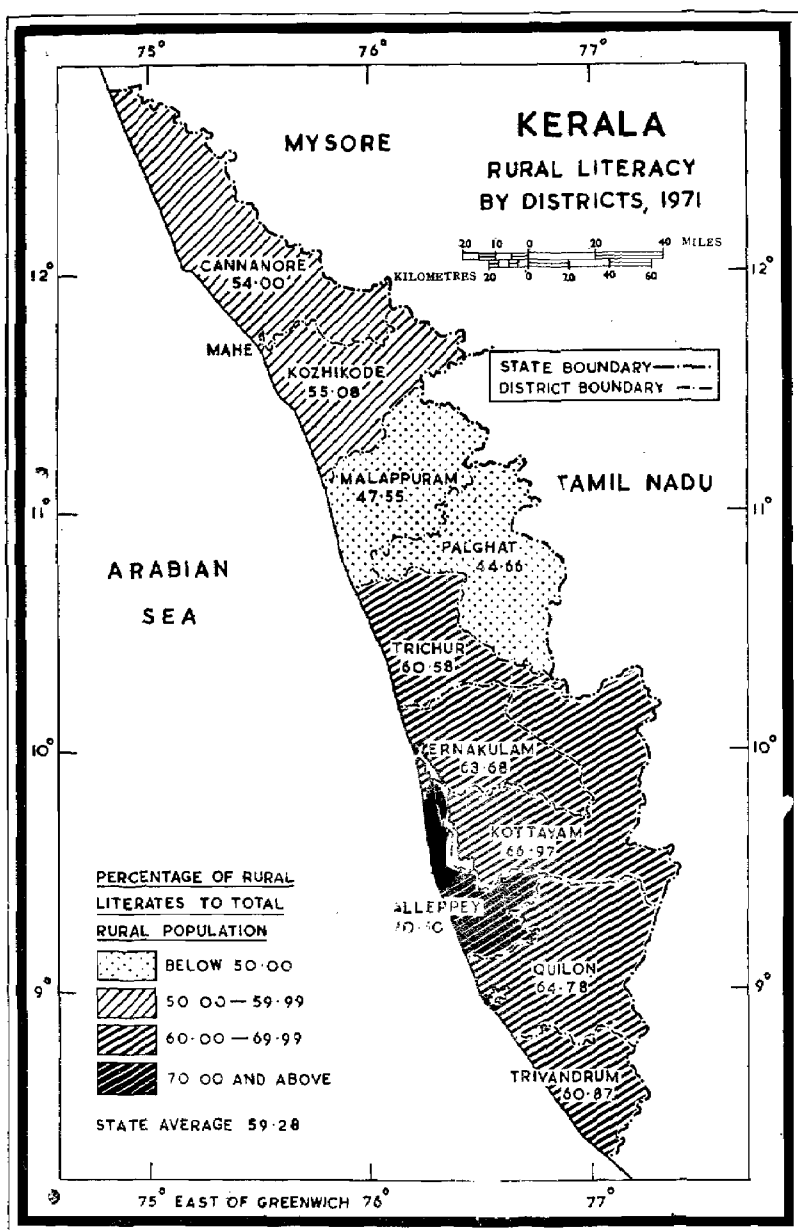


The rate of literacy is not uniform in the districts. It ranges between 70.44 per cent in Alleppey district

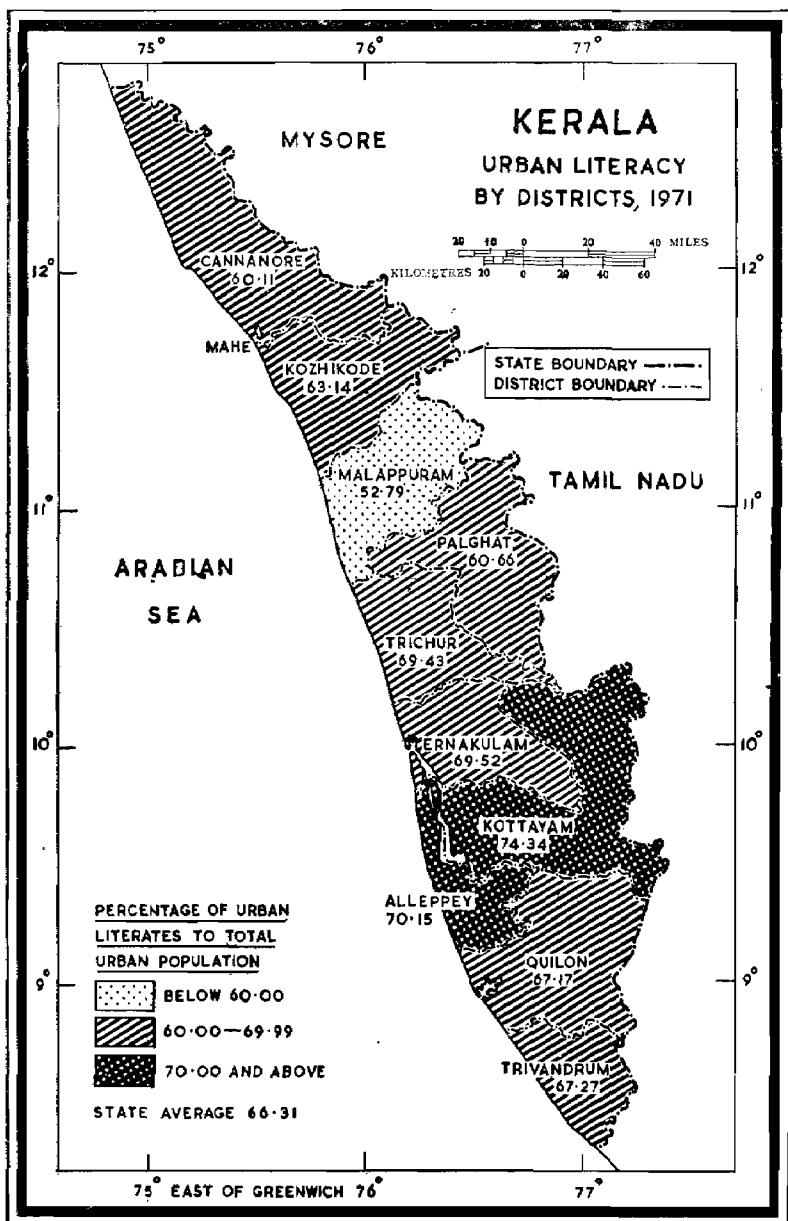
and 46.69 per cent in Palghat. Six districts have literacy rates exceeding sixty per cent. Four districts are comparatively backward. They are Palghat, Malappuram, Cannanore and Kozhikode. These districts are in the Malabar area and formed part of the erstwhile Madras State. The southern regions of the State, ruled by the enlightened Maharajas of Cochin and Travancore were already ahead in literacy at the time of the formation of Kerala State.

We have already seen that the difference in the rate of literacy between the urban and rural areas in the State is only about 7. This is also not uniform in the various districts of the State. It is an index of the progress of a district in literacy. The greater the difference between the literacy rates of urban and rural areas of a district, the lesser is its progress in literacy. The difference between urban and rural literacy rates is greatest in Palghat with 16, and it is the last in the rate of literacy. In Alleppey, the difference is negligible, the rural areas being a little ahead, and it is the most literate district in Kerala and the whole of India.

Just as in the case of urban and rural literacy, the difference between the rates of male and female literacy in a district indicates its stage of progress in literacy. In the more advanced districts, the difference will be less. It is 12 in the State, 15 in Palghat, 14 in Malappuram and 9 in Alleppey. Alleppey and Kottayam districts share the distinctions in the field of literacy among the districts of Kerala. Alleppey as we have already seen stands first in the rate of total literacy. It also leads the other districts in male and female literacy in the rural areas. Though Kottayam stands only second in the rate of general literacy, it has the highest rates in male and female literacy in the urban areas.



BASED UPON SURVEY OF INDIA MAP. THE TERRITORIAL WATERS OF INDIA EXTEND INTO THE SEA TO A DISTANCE OF TWELVE NAUTICAL MILES MEASURED FROM THE APPROPRIATE BASE LINE.



BASED UPON SURVEY OF INDIA MAP THE TERRITORIAL WATERS OF INDIA EXTEND INTO THE SEA TO A DISTANCE OF TWELVE NAUTICAL MILES MEASURED FROM THE APPROPRIATE BASE LINES.

According to the rate of literacy, the taluks in the State may be divided into four groups. There are 12 taluks with a literacy rate of less than 50 per cent and seven with a rate of above 70 per cent. The largest number, 27, are in the range 60 to 70 per cent and the remaining 10 taluks are in the range of 50 to 60 per cent literacy rate. All the taluks except Devicolam, which are lagging behind in literacy are in the Malabar area. The seven taluks in the lead are all in the Central Travancore area, in Kottayam, Alleppey and Quilon districts. These taluks are Meenachil, Kottayam, Changanacherry, Thiruvalla, Kuttanad, Chengannur and Pathanamthitta. Thiruvalla stands first with a rate of literacy of 78.29 per cent. No taluk in Malappuram and Palghat districts has reached a literacy rate of 60 per cent while there is no taluk in Alleppey, Quilon and Ernakulam districts with a literacy rate of less than 60 per cent. Ernakulam has the greatest uniformity, all taluks are in the same range of literacy of 60 to 70 per cent. South Wynad, Kasaragod, Hosdrug, North Wynad, Ernad, Tirur, Ponnani, Mannarghat, Palghat, Chittur, Alathur and Devicolam are in the lowest range of literacy rate in the State. Among them Mannarghat ranks last with a literacy rate of 38.47 per cent. These taluks require special attention in the drive for per cent literacy in the State.

Among the cities in India Alleppey has the pride of place of being the most literate city in the country. Naturally the five cities in the State have comparatively high literacy rates. There is only one city with a literacy rate of above 70 per cent while there are seven taluks in the State sharing that honour. The literacy rates in the cities range from 65.38 per cent in Calicut Corporation to 70.04 per cent in Alleppey municipal town. When the smaller municipal towns are also considered Thiruvalla stands first with a high literacy rate of 79.31 per cent. Kasaragod municipal town is the last with 56.04 per cent.

We can get a more realistic rate of literacy if children below 5 years of age are excluded from the calculation, as they are in any case, considered as illiterates. The number of illiterates in the State excluding children below 5 years of age was 61.4 lakhs in 1951. It rose to 64.6 lakhs in 1961. According to the estimate now available, the number of illiterates has gone down to 55.9 lakhs in 1971. There is an unmistakable trend towards the wiping out of illiteracy.

The rate of literacy, got by excluding children below 5 years of age may be called 'effective rate' of literacy. In 1901, the effective rate of literacy in Kerala was only 12.85 per cent. By 1961 it rose to 55.08 and in the present census the rate went up to 69.75. The increase is substantial and is perhaps indicative of the fact that there is effective enrolment of all the children of the age of 5 to 9 years in the schools.

The enviable position that our state occupies in literacy rate was not achieved in a day. It is due to a happy combination of tradition and deliberate planning. Being a coastal region with several ports, the State was subject to foreign influence from very early days. Christian missionaries from abroad and various religious organizations in general have contributed in no small measure towards the spread of literacy among the masses. Their efforts were encouraged and sustained by those in power. From very early days, the women in this part of the country enjoyed almost equal status with men and their education was not neglected. However there were comparatively backward regions and communities. As a matter of state policy, backward communities are given special incentives like financial aid in addition to free education and preferential treatment in recruitment to Government service. Regional disparities, which are also being removed, are due to historic reasons. Travancore and Cochin were ruled by enlightened rulers, many

of them liberal patrons of art and literature. Christian missionaries from abroad opened educational institutions in many parts of the State but central Travancore benefited most from their enterprise. Even before independence, steps were introduced in Travancore State to make primary education free and compulsory. Malabar area, under the erstwhile Madras State did not enjoy these benefits to the same extent.

The educational statistics of the State and the expenditure on education from the state budget are highly impressive. There are 1,393 high schools and 9,437 primary schools in the State. Of these 6,754 schools are managed by private agencies which works out to 62.36 per cent. Except for 120 un-aided recognized schools, the responsibility for payment of the staff of even private schools rests with the Government. There were 49.8 lakh of pupils attending schools during 1971-72, the bulk of them 42.3 lakh were in primary schools. As much as 47 per cent of the pupils were girls. The percentage of enrolment in schools has increased from 17.5 per cent of the population in 1956-57 to 22.5 per cent, in 1971-72. It is claimed that there is cent per cent enrolment of the population in the age group 5 to 9 in schools. It is estimated that 37.9 per cent of the budgetary expenditure is spent on education. The expenditure on school education was Rs. 51.41 crores in 1970-71. The per capita Government expenditure on education has increased from Rs. 6.30 in 1960-61 to Rs. 27.45 in 1970-71.

Every effort is being made to establish schools within easy reach of the children even in the remote areas. There are 44 primary schools and 6 high schools per lakh of population. In 1960-61 there was one school per 2.97 sq. km. and in 1970-71 one school per 2.62 sq. km.

Still the ideal of cent per cent effective literacy has not been reached. While there has been commendable progress in the enrolment of children in schools, it appears that solution of adult illiteracy has been left to time.

CHAPTER V

Our mother tongue

Language is the chief means of communication among human beings. Making various kinds of noises and movements of the body as methods of communication are shared by the rest of the animal world. But speech is a unique gift of the human race. We never pause to think of this wonderful facility to give expression to our ideas in words, well understood by others, until we see somebody who is denied that gift. In a sense the uttered 'word' is not so universal as the 'gesture', the meaning of which is understood by all. There are in the world many linguistic groups. While a common language makes people more intimate, diversity in language can cause misunderstandings. In our country there are many languages and dialects. Actually they are too numerous to identify and list out properly. But the common man's sphere of activity is so limited that he may not be troubled by the ignorance of languages other than his own mother tongue. Knowledge of several languages is certainly an asset. It helps one to understand and appreciate the art and culture of others.

The chapter on language in the 1901 Census Report of India was contributed by an eminent linguist G. A. Grierson. He was overwhelmed by the rich variety of languages and dialects he came across in the Indian subcontinent. He says "There are parts of India that

recall the plain in the land of Shinar where the tower of old was built, and in which almost each of the many mountains has its own languages, and there are great plains, thousands and tens of thousands of miles in area, over which one language is spoken from end to end. And over all there broods the glamour of eastern mystery. Through all of them we hear the inarticulate murmur of past ages, of ages when the Aryans wandered with their herds across the steppes of Central Asia, when the Indo-Chinese had not yet issued from their home on the Yang-tse-kiang, and perhaps when there existed the Lemurian continent where now sweep the restless waves of the Indian Ocean". Now also the linguistic situation in the country is not very different. In the plains, as Grierson noticed, large numbers of people speak the same language. But in hilly areas and isolated pockets, different ethnic groups speak different languages and dialects bewildering in their variety. No wonder, 548 million people spread out over more than 3 million sq. km. of uneven territory, speak a variety of tongues. As many as 1,652 mother tongues were recorded in the 1961 Census of India.

Collection of data on languages was considered important from the beginning of Census in India, and from 1881, the mother tongue of every person enumerated was recorded. In 1881 'mother tongue' was defined as 'the language ordinarily spoken in the household of each person's parent'. In the 1891 Census the question was 'parent tongue' in the place of 'mother tongue'. In the 1901 Census 'the language which each person ordinarily used in his own home' was recorded. This gave rise to confusion as some persons gave the languages they ordinarily used for communication instead of their native tongues. Instructions were therefore revised in the next decennial census and the language that a person 'ordinarily spoke in the household' was entered. In the case of infants and deaf-mutes language

of the mother was recorded. In subsequent censuses, this definition remained almost unchanged. In the 1921 Census the question was 'language ordinarily used'. From 1931 onwards the question was again 'mother tongue'. An additional question 'other language in common use', 'any other language' or 'bilingualism' was also asked in later censuses. In 1961 'mother tongue' was defined as the language spoken in the childhood by the person's mother to the person or mainly spoken in the household. There was no change in 1971 but elaborate instructions were given to the enumerators to record the mother tongue in full whatever be the name of the language as returned by the respondent. The definition of mother tongue has changed only slightly since the data on languages were begun to be collected. Hence the data collected through the censuses are comparable and capable of yielding useful conclusions.

India has a tradition of linguistic study and research comparable with that of many advanced countries in the world. It is due to the fruitful co-operation of the census organization and the Linguistic Survey of India that a systematic analysis and classification of Indian languages were made possible. Eminent scholars who attended the Oriental Congress of Vienna in 1886 urged upon the Government of India to undertake a systematic survey of Indian languages. The Government of India appointed Sir George A. Grierson as the Superintendent of Linguistic Survey Operations. He was also associated with the decennial census of 1901 and he analysed the language data and wrote a chapter on language in the 1901 Census Report of India. His contribution is acclaimed as a landmark in the world of linguistics. The Linguistic Survey drew heavily upon the language data collected through decennial censuses of 1911 and 1921. In the same way it was possible to analyse language data in a scientific and coherent manner in the 1931 Census making use of the

great Linguistic Survey completed in 1927. There were no language reports in 1941 and 1951. In the 1961 Census, the broad framework of Grierson's classification of languages was adopted, supplemented by the later researches in the field of linguistics.

Sir George Grierson was a civil servant turned linguist. In 1898 he became the Superintendent of the Linguistic Survey of India. His own interest in languages began much earlier. The *Linguistic Survey of India*—consisting of XI octavo volumes of which 5 were in 14 parts—was finally published in 1927. He classified languages mainly based on grammatical or structural considerations. The smallest unit was called a 'sub-dialect' and the broadest was known as 'family'. The large population of this subcontinent is composed of people of diverse social elements and cultures. The languages are classified mainly into four distinct families—the Austric, the Tibeto-Chinese, the Dravidian and the Indo-European. The Dravidian languages are Telugu, Tamil, Kannada and Malayalam. Of these languages Tamil has preserved the Dravidian character best as the others were influenced by Sanskrit to a large extent.

Innumerable languages and dialects are returned as mother tongues in the census. It is an arduous task to identify and classify them. In some cases further field investigation is found necessary to establish their identity. This was the procedure followed in the 1971 Census also. The order brought about in the presentation of linguistic picture owes much to the pioneering work done in this field by Grierson.

There are 15 languages specified in the Eighth Schedule to the Constitution of India. They are Assamese,

Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Malayalam, Marathi, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu and Urdu. Hindi is the mother tongue of about 163 million people making up nearly 30 per cent of the population of India. Next comes Bengali with 45 million speakers. But they represent only 8 per cent of the total population. People speaking the Dravidian family of languages number over 126 million which is 23 per cent of the population of the country. Among the Dravidian languages, Telugu has the largest number of speakers, about 44.8 million, Tamil speakers number 37.7 million, Malayalam 21.9 million and Kannada 21.7 million. Only 4 per cent of the people of India have Malayalam as their mother tongue.

Before the reorganization of the States in India on a linguistic basis the Malayalees were distributed in the two princely states of Travancore and Cochin and the Malabar district of Madras State. Though they were under three different administrative units, the cultural unity of the people was never in doubt. The formation of Kerala State, with Malayalam as the State language or 'Aikya Keralam' was a long-standing demand of the Malayalees. On 1st November 1956, Kerala State was formed bringing together the Malayalees under one political unit.

Malayalam ranks third among the four South Indian languages belonging to the Dravidian family. According to Grierson "its name is derived from *mala*, the local word for 'mountain', with a termination which some explain as meaning 'district', and others as meaning 'sudden slope'. It is a modern offshoot from Tamil, dating from, say, the 9th century. In the 17th century it became subject to Brahmanical influence, received a large infusion of Sanskrit words, and adopted the Grantha instead of the Vatteluttu character for its alphabet". During the period from 9th to 12th centuries a new

literary language known as 'Manipravalam' a mixture of Tamil and Sanskrit came to be used. Malayalam was originally the language of the masses and Sanskrit the scholarly tongue of the higher castes.

A new form of poetic expression came to be practised from the 14th century, known as 'Champu' in which prose and verse were mixed. Almost during the same period long epistles in verse called 'Sandesa Kavyas' were also in fashion. *Krishna Gatha* of Cherusseri Namboothiri composed in the 15th century is the earliest artistic work in Malayalam of outstanding merit.

The most significant contribution to Malayalam literature during the latter half of the 17th century was made by Tunchath Ramanujan Ezhuthachan. William Logan observes that "it was no less than a revolution when in the seventeenth century one Tunchath Ezhuthachan, a man of the Sudra (Nayar) Caste, boldly made an alphabet the existing Malayalam one—derived chiefly from the Grantha—the Sanskrit alphabet of the Tamils, which permitted of the free use of Sanskrit in writing—and boldly set to work to render the chief Sanskrit poems into Malayalam". His *Adhyatma Ramayana*, *Mahabharata* and *Maha Bhagavatha* are the greatest classics in Malayalam literature. He is known as the 'Father of the Malayalam Language'.

In the second half of the 17th century 'Attakatha' was introduced as a new branch of literature. While actors played their parts on the Kathakali stage, these verses were sung by singers in the background. The 'Nalacharitham' by Unnai Warriar is the best known among the Kathakali works. In the 18th century Kunchan Nambiar introduced a new literary type of dance-drama called 'Thullal'. As a scholar observes "there is

a strong individuality about his works. From any collection of quotations, his lines could be easily picked out. The cadences of the verses are perfect. His verses flow with a grace and elegance that are charming indeed, now and then, they are spirited, at other times they rise to an indignant and dignified eloquence; here and there are passages of keen sarcasm. His works are strewn with jewels that will sparkle forever". It was noted for its local colour, satirical criticism of contemporary society and a keen sense of humour. During the 18th and 19th centuries the language was further enriched by contribution from an altogether different source, namely Christian missionaries who took seriously to the study of Malayalam language and literature. The Malayalam-English Dictionary by Dr. Hermann Gundert (1872) deserves special mention.

In the 19th and 20th centuries the growth of Malayalam literature was phenomenal. Contact with western literature, new social and political theories, and the concern of writers with the social and political problems widened the horizon of Malayalam literature. Malayalam poetry found its full expression in the works of Vallathol Narayana Menon, Kumaran Asan and Ullur S. Parameswara Iyer. Simultaneously other branches of literature like novels, short stories, drama, literary criticism, essay and scientific literature, travelogue, and biography also flourished. Some of the Malayalam writers can be compared with the best in India and abroad. Mahakavi G. Sankara Kurup was selected for the Bharatiya Gnanapeetam award in 1966.

How many people speak Malayalam? The 1971 Census reveals that there are 219 lakh of Malayalees in India and that out of them 205 lakh live in Kerala. Out of 14 lakh of Malayalees who live in the other States and Union Territories in India, about 5.6 lakh are in Tamil Nadu and 4.2 lakh in the other neighbouring

state of Mysore. But the adventurous Malayalees are found not only in every part of India but also in the cities and remote areas all over the world. We do not know how many Malayalees live abroad. Malayalees are a very adaptable people. No Malayalee could go to the moon yet but probably he will be among the first to settle down there!

In the 1971 Census, 132 mother tongues were recorded in Kerala. The first 10 numerically strong languages are Malayalam, Tamil, Tulu, Kannada, Konkani, Telugu, Marathi, Urdu, Hindi and Gujarati. 96.01 per cent of the people speak Malayalam and 2.37 per cent, Tamil. There are 5 lakh of Tamils but the other linguistic minorities number less than 1 lakh each.

The linguistic picture is more or less the same in the districts. Malayalam is the most predominant language of all the districts. The percentage of Malayalam speakers varies from 88.06 per cent in Palghat to 99.82 per cent in Malappuram district. Tamil minority is sizable in certain areas. It is smallest in Malappuram with 0.09 per cent and largest in Palghat district with 10.12 per cent. Tamil is another Dravidian language and the state language of the neighbouring state. Its influence on Malayalam is recognized by all. According to Grierson 'Tamil is the oldest, richest, and most highly organized of the Dravidian languages; plentiful in vocabulary, and cultivated from a remote period'. The Tamils are found in large numbers in three districts, Palghat, Kottayam and Trivandrum. They had settled down in these districts long before the reorganization of the states in India on a linguistic basis. Palghat was part of the erstwhile Madras State and Tamils had settled down there as cultivators and traders. Trivandrum district, before the formation of Kerala State, extended up to Cape Comorin and the southern part of the district had a majority of Tamil speakers. The region

with a Tamil majority, now called Kanyakumari district, was separated from Trivandrum district and added to Tamil Nadu. In the remaining part of Trivandrum district bordering Tamil Nadu and in the capital city of Trivandrum, Tamils are found in fairly large numbers. Devicolam, Peermade and Udumbanchola, the hilly regions of Kottayam district were opened up for tea and cardamom plantations mostly by foreign companies before Indian independence and they brought labourers from the adjoining State to work in these estates. Kottayam district has a sizable Tamil population due to the presence of Tamil labourers in the estates in the high ranges.

There is only a slight difference between the linguistic compositions of the population of rural and urban areas. Naturally in the rural areas, except in the high ranges and near the State boundaries linguistic minorities are found only in small numbers. In the urban areas, in business and employments, there is a larger proportion of linguistic minorities. Even in urban areas, however, they make up less than 10 per cent of the population. Malayalees form 96.73 per cent of the rural population and 92.33 per cent of the urban population. Speakers of the South Indian languages are found both in urban areas and rural areas. Tamils form 2 per cent of the rural population and 4 per cent of the urban population. Speakers of the North Indian languages are scattered mostly in the towns.

The cities of the State present a greater diversity of languages. Cochin Corporation is the most cosmopolitan among them. There are speakers of 89 different mother tongues in the city. Only 45 mother tongues are represented in Trivandrum city, and 31 in Calicut city. Cochin has the lowest percentage of Malayalees and the largest variety of languages. Only 88.17 per cent of the population are Malayalees. While Tamil ranks

second in all the other cities in the State, in Cochin this place is occupied by Konkani. 96.39 per cent of the population of Calicut city are Malayalam-speaking. This is the highest among the cities. The language second in rank is Tamil. But Tamils make up only 1.56 per cent of the population of Calicut Corporation. In Alleppey there are only 26 mother tongues. The third linguistic group in the city is Konkani speakers. They form 2.54 per cent of the population. Quilon has a greater percentage of Tamils than Alleppey. 7.35 per cent of the population are Tamils. There are 774 persons in Quilon city who speak English as their mother tongue. In the capital city 87.57 per cent of the population are Malayalees. Tamils constitute 10.15 per cent of population of the city. No other city in the State has such a high percentage of Tamil linguistic minority. Though there are 43 other mother tongues represented in the capital city, the speakers of all these languages hardly make up even 2.5 per cent of the population.

CHAPTER VI

The religions we follow

The Indian civilization is characterised by its deeply religious outlook. Religion affects the lives of the people in several ways. Food habits, concepts of health and hygiene, ceremonies connected with birth, death and marriage differ from one religious community to the other. Some of these factors affect even the economic conditions of the people. As such the religious affiliations of the people is an important question in the census enquiry.

India has the legacy of a civilization dating back to several centuries before the Christian Era. The excavations of Harappa and Mohenjo Daro have brought to light religious symbols evolved by a very ancient civilization of 3000 B.C. or perhaps earlier. This means that the people of India had practised forms of worship long before the Aryan immigration. The Aryans did not altogether abandon the earlier practices. It has been said that the Vedic Aryans partly assimilated and partly destroyed the earlier culture.

Hinduism is the predominant religion in the country. Out of 548 million people in India, 453 million (82.72 per cent) are Hindus. Hinduism is noted for its receptivity and all-comprehensiveness. Within its ever widening fold there are people of diverse faiths. People

of all intellectual levels find solace in it. The mystic as well as the common man finds food for thought in its philosophy or satisfaction in the splendour of its ceremonies. Because of its infinite adaptability it was enriched rather than weakened by the impact of other religious philosophies. The Vedic and Epic periods are milestones in the history of Indian philosophy. The system of religious teachings embodied in the Vedas and epics survived the impact of Buddhism and other religions in India. The proportion of Hindus exceeds 50 per cent of the population in all the States and Union Territories except Punjab, Jammu and Kashmir, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Arunachal Pradesh and L.M. and A. Islands.

Islam, the second of the major religions in India was brought to India by Arab traders. Later conquests by the Muslims swelled the followers of Islam. The Delhi Sultanate was established in 1206 A.D. Only a small proportion of the Muslims are the descendants of the immigrants. The vast majority are converts from other religions. There were concentrations of Muslims in many parts of the Indian subcontinent. The partition of India resulting in the establishment of Pakistan with Muslim majority, reduced the proportion of Muslims in India. Still they have retained their place as the second in numerical strength. They number a little over 61 million and make up 11.21 per cent of the population. These are the only two religions in India which claim a following of more than 10 per cent of the population. The Union Territory of L.M. & A. Islands has 94.37 per cent of its population returned as Muslims. The only other state which has more than 50 per cent of its population belonging to Muslim community is Jammu and Kashmir.

The third, Christianity has only 14 million followers, making up 2.6 per cent of the population. Nagaland

is the only state in India where the Christian population exceeds more than fifty per cent.

In all there are only six religions in India which have more than 1 million followers each. They are Hinduism, Islam, Christianity, Sikhism, Buddhism and Jainism in the order of numerical strength. There are 10.4 million Sikhs, 3.8 million Buddhists, and 2.6 million Jains in the country.

During the decade 1961-71 Christianity registered the highest growth rate and Buddhism the lowest. In 1961 Hindus made up 83.51 per cent, Muslims 10.70 per cent and Christians 2.44 per cent of the population of the country. While the proportion of Hindus to the total population has gone down slightly the percentages of the other two communities have increased slightly.

The three major religions of India are represented in our state. According to the 1971 Census in the State the Hindus number 12.7 million, Christians 4.5 million and Muslims 4.2 million. Just as in the whole country, Hinduism is the predominant religion. While Muslims are the second largest community in India, in Kerala, the second place is occupied by Christians. Muslims are the third largest community in Kerala and they are not far behind the Christians in numerical strength. The Hindus account for 59.41 per cent, Christians 21.05 per cent and Muslims 19.50 per cent of the population of Kerala. These three major religious communities together make up 99.96 per cent of the population of Kerala whereas in the whole country they constitute 96.53 per cent of the population.

The introduction of the major religions into Kerala and their impact on social life are a fascinating study.

The Dravidians of Kerala had their own religious rites and practices before the religions of the north entered Kerala. They worshipped the deities which guarded the borders of their villages, the demons that caused diseases and the spirits that inhabited hills and trees. There is evidence to show that they also believed in ancestor worship. The Dravidian practices continued even after the advent of Jainism and Buddhism but gradually declined in course of time mainly due to the impact of Vaishnavite and Saivite movements. It is believed that Buddhism came to Kerala about the third century B.C., during the reign of Asoka. It started to decline from the 8th century A.D. and disappeared by the 12th century but not without leaving a lasting impression on Kerala society. The Aryan influence is said to have started in the 3rd century B.C. with the arrival of the first batch of immigrants. Their influence was slow, steady and lasting. They adopted certain Dravidian practices and introduced their own ideas of diet and caste system without provoking any serious objection from the natives. The Hindu religion was a synthesis of the Dravidian ideas of the south and the Aryan ideas of the north and the Aryanisation of Kerala was effected in a subtle manner by a gradual process rather than by the force of arms. Ultimately Buddhism which wielded much influence was also absorbed into the ever widening fold of Hinduism.

The Christians of Kerala are the second largest religious community in the State. It is believed that Christianity was brought to Kerala in the 1st century A.D. by St. Thomas, one of the twelve apostles of Christ. According to the tradition cherished by the Christians of Kerala St. Thomas landed at Maliankara near Muziris (Kodungallur) in 52 A.D. converted several Brahmins and others to Christianity and founded seven churches on the Malabar coast. Contacts between the Malabar coast and the ports of the Roman Empire were frequent

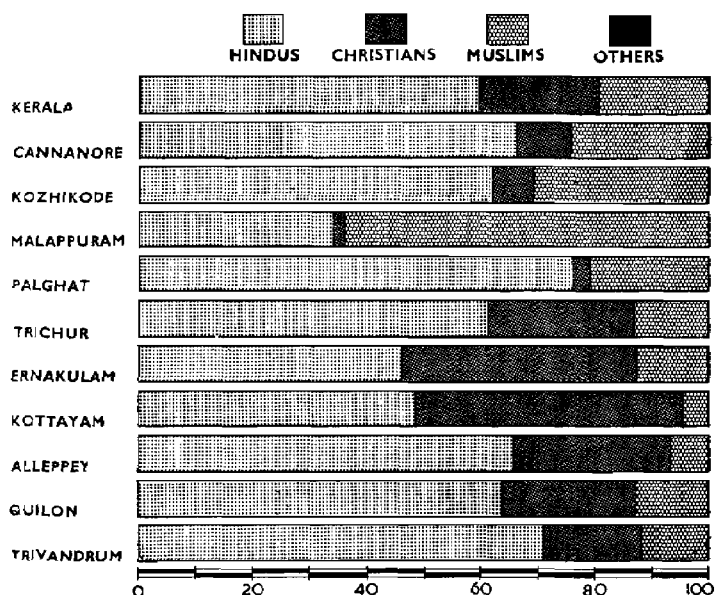
even prior to the Christian Era and there is nothing inherently impossible in the popular tradition. St. Thomas could have reached Malabar, if he so desired and he had every chance of hearing about the land which supplied the spices to the civilized countries. During the course of a few centuries Christianity made rapid progress. But the Malabar Christians were subjected to the conflicting influence of the foreign missionaries who visited Kerala during various periods. Originally Christians of Kerala used the Syrian liturgy. But the Latin Christian missionaries, on their arrival, introduced the Latin rites which gained permanency during the Portuguese period. During the 19th century, the Anglican missionaries who came to work in the Syrian church broke off from the Syrian church and established their own churches. Quite a number of other Protestant organizations from the western countries extended their work to Kerala during the same period.

Muslims are the third in numerical strength in Kerala. As there had been considerable trade between Kerala and Arab countries even before the time of Mohammed, the Prophet, Islam was also introduced into Kerala at an early date, in 8th century A.D. Like the Christians and the Jews the Arab traders also settled down near Kodungallur. Islam made rapid progress in course of time. It is said that the last of the Chera emperors Cheraman Perumal embraced Islam and went on a pilgrimage to Mecca. The Zamorin's navy was manned by Muslims. There was a greater concentration of Muslims in the northern districts of Kerala than in the other parts of the State.

All the three major religions have followers in all the districts of the State. But the distribution does not follow the state pattern everywhere. In seven out of 10 districts in the State, Hindus make up more than 50 per

cent of the population of the respective districts. In Kottayam and Ernakulam, they are less than 50 per cent, Malappuram is the only district in the State where Hindus take the second place in numerical strength. In Malappuram 63.93 per cent of the population are Muslims whereas only 34.08 per cent are Hindus. There is no district in the State where Christians are the largest community. In Kottayam and Ernakulam districts they account for 46.93 and 41.54 per cent of the population respectively. Only 1.99 per cent of the population of

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BY MAJOR RELIGIONS, 1971



Malappuram are Christians. In addition to Malappuram district Muslims are also well represented in Kozhikode, Cannanore and Palghat districts with a strength of more than 20 per cent of the total population. The

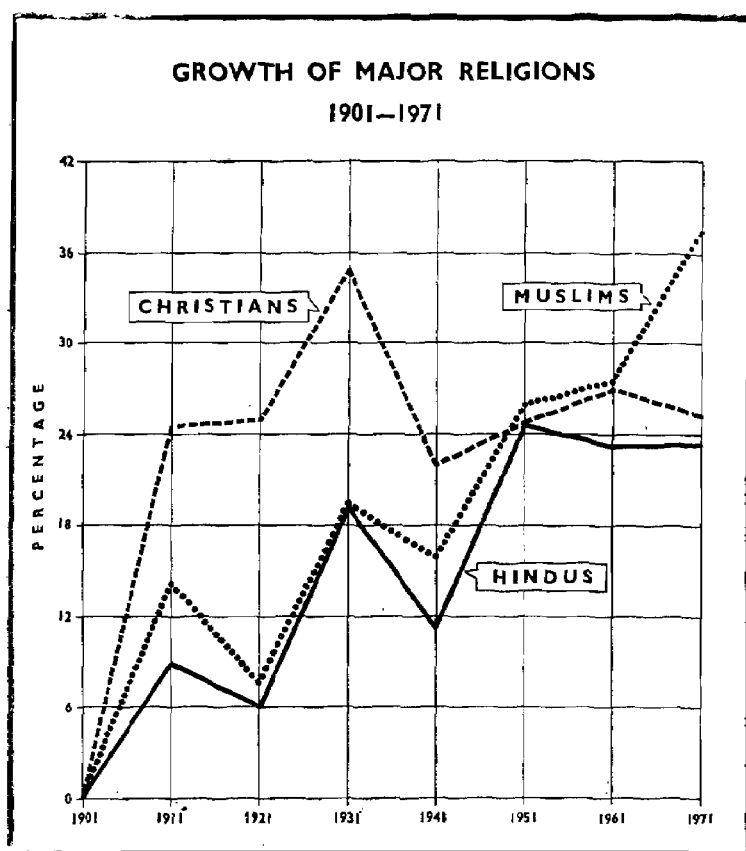
followers of the other religions are very small in number. In the whole state there are only 3,336 Jains, 1,284 Sikhs and 605 Buddhists. The Jains are found mostly in Kozhikode and Ernakulam districts, the Sikhs in Ernakulam district and the Buddhists in Trichur and Ernakulam districts.

Jews came to the Kerala coast after the destruction of the Second Temple at Jerusalem by the Romans in 70 A.D. There are two classes of Jews viz. White Jews and Black Jews. White Jews are said to be the migrants from Spain, Italy and other European countries while the Black Jews claim to have come from Yemen and Babylon. The Jews led a very peaceful life till the arrival of Portuguese in 1498. The Portuguese adopted a policy of persecution against the Jewish settlers in Kodungallur and they had to shift their residence from there to Mattancherry, Chennamangalam and other places. The birth of the state of Israel in May 1948 had brought great enthusiasm in the minds of Jews and most of them migrated to Israel. Now their number has dwindled and the latest census showed that there were only 112 Jews in Kerala.

In all the cities of the State the Hindus form more than 50 per cent of the population except in Cochin Corporation where only 42.46 per cent of the population are Hindus. In Trivandrum, their proportion is highest with a percentage of 73.53 of the population of the city. Christians are a sizable minority in Cochin, Alleppey and Quilon towns. In Cochin they account for 39.76 per cent of the population. But in Calicut Corporation they form only 4.39 per cent of the population. The Muslim population ranges from 10.45 per cent in Trivandrum to 33.32 per cent in Calicut Corporation. Except in Calicut they form the third largest religious group in the cities of Kerala. Hindus are the largest religious group in all cities and Christians

are the second largest group except in Calicut. In all the cities there is a sprinkling of Jains, Cochin and Calicut having the larger groups. There are also some Sikhs in the cities notably in Cochin and Quilon. A very small number of Buddhists are found in Cochin and Quilon.

There are some interesting trends in the proportion of the major communities to the total population during the past seven decades. The Hindus formed 68.36 per cent of the population in 1901. Their proportion is



gradually falling. It has come down to 59.41 per cent in 1971. In 1961, it was 60.83 per cent. The proportion of Christians on the other hand is slowly but steadily increasing. From 1931, the rate of increase has slowed down considerably. In 1961 it was 21.22 per cent and in 1971, it has actually come down slightly to 21.05 per cent. In the case of Muslim population, the proportion remained almost steady from 1901 to 1961 but showed a sudden spurt during the last decade from 17.91 to 19.50 per cent. The followers of other religions are too small in number to show any significant trend in the rate of growth.

The cultural unity of the Malayalees who follow the three major religions of the world is emphasized by K. P. S. Menon in his book *Many Worlds*. "A narrow strip of land stretching along the Malabar coast in the south-west corner of India, with the Arabian Sea to the west and the Western Ghats to the east, Kerala had developed its own way of life. Not that it remained immune from alien influences but it assimilated them and absorbed them into its own peculiar pattern. The population consisted of Hindus, Christians and Muslims. Sankaracharya, the greatest Indian philosopher since Gautama Buddha, was a native of Kerala. The first Indian converts to Christianity were made in Kerala by St. Thomas, the apostle of Christ, in the first century A.D. and their descendants formed a flourishing Syrian Christian community. Similarly, the first Indian Muslims were the Moplahs of Malabar, derived from Arab traders who married local women and settled down in the country. Some of the earliest Jews in the world were also in Kerala. In spite of this religious medley, the people had a homogeneous character. They spoke the same language, wore the same white dress, gloried in the same traditions and followed the same customs and manners".

CHAPTER VII

Scheduled castes and tribes

We have seen that the Indian culture is characterised by its deeply religious outlook and that all the major religions of the world have followers in this country. Another factor which has influenced Indian society is the caste system. Hinduism, the religion of the vast majority of the people, has a tradition of preserving caste system for several centuries. Other religions are also not immune from its impact. Though religions like Islam and Christianity may not officially recognize divisions based on caste, they also could not escape from its influence.

We are familiar with the word 'Chaturvarnya' the system of four great castes, consisting of Brahmin, Kshatriya, Vaisya and Sudra. Each caste is supposed to specialise in one occupation or other essential to the society. Priesthood and administration and military duties are reserved for the first two castes. The occupations of the other two are agriculture and menial jobs. The essence of the caste system is the orderly arrangements of the various groups in a hierarchy with Brahmins at the top and Sudras at the bottom. It gave a place to each man in society. The saddest thing appears to be that no man was allowed to move out of the place arbitrarily fixed for him. Early Brahmin writers used all their wit and learning to discuss and define the rights and duties of

each caste. No wonder that something like a divinely ordered system emerged, the violation of which was visited with punishment. It was even said that the four castes originated from four parts of the body of the creator.

The association of a caste with a particular occupation has given rise to the conclusion that the origin of caste is merely occupational differentiation. To begin with, all castes were said to be equal. It was only later on that certain occupations were looked down as inferior. Some castes have even today a monopoly of certain occupations. But every member of a caste does not practise a single occupation exclusively. To associate a caste invariably with a single occupation seems to be an over simplification of the origin of the caste system.

Whatever be the origin of the caste system, its impact on Indian society was far-reaching. Caste was not a mere label. It was a way of life, rigid in the extreme. Every individual lived in a hierarchical world. Both high castes and low castes were fettered by rules and conventions. They had hardly any choice in the type of ornaments and dress they wore, the food they ate, and the rites and ceremonies they practised. The high caste man had to keep his distance from the low caste man. The former could not accept cooked food from the latter. The concept of pollution kept the castes apart from each other. There were prescribed distances to be kept by different castes and violations invariably resulted in punishment. In course of time various privileges became the birth right of the higher castes and disabilities piled upon the lower castes.

Not that there was no reaction against the rigidity of the caste system. Buddhism is said to have questioned it. The Bhakthi movement almost ignored its existence.

It recognized saints from all castes including the Harijans. Of course it took years before anything like a mass protest against caste system could be organized.

It is said that Kerala had a casteless society before the Aryan immigration. Caste system was foisted on Kerala society by the immigrants by subtle methods. They assigned to the Dravidian chieftains and merchants comparatively high positions in the hierarchy of 'Chaturvarnya' and encouraged them to follow the way of life of the higher castes. The chieftains and rulers were made to believe that it was their sacred duty to protect the Brahmins. Though borrowed, the system took deep root in Kerala and became a means of oppression of the lower castes. Kerala was not behind North India in rigidly enforcing the laws of pollution and keeping the castes away from each other.

The people of Kerala were not slow to realise the injustices perpetrated in the name of the caste system. All sections of the people protested against its evils. Politicians and poets joined hands in educating the public and bringing pressure on the Government in mitigating the suffering of the depressed classes. Vaikom Satyagraha and Guruvayur Satyagraha were milestones in the struggle for the upliftment of the backward classes. The Temple Entry Proclamation in 1936 issued by the Maharaja of Travancore was a great historical document, the first of its kind in the country. Mahatma Gandhi hailed it 'as a *smriti* which is the people's charter of spiritual emancipation'. One of the evils of the caste system was the lowering of the literacy rate of the lower castes. Government took special steps in extending free education to them and preferential treatment in recruitment to Government service.

With the country gaining freedom from foreign rule, steps taken to uplift the lower castes were accelerated and given sanctity under the provisions of the Indian Constitution.

Under the Directive Principles of State policy in Part 4 of the Constitution under Article 46, it has been laid down that "the State shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and, in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation".

The special protection offered by the Constitution, naturally, should go only to the castes and tribes which are genuinely backward and deserve special consideration. Articles 341 and 342 of the Constitution provide that the "President of India may by public notification specify such castes and tribes which shall for the purposes of the Constitution be deemed to be Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in each state". The lists of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are made out for each state and even in respect of a state with reference to each district.

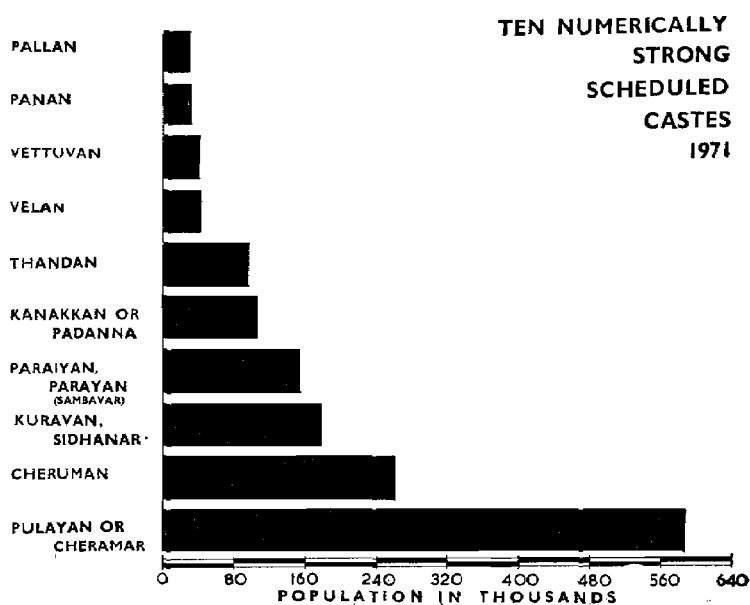
According to the Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1950, the President, after consultation with the Governors and Rajpramukhs of the States concerned was pleased to list out the castes and tribes considered as Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The list was further modified as per the "Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Modification) Order, 1956" issued by the President of the Indian Union. No person who professed a religion different from the Hindu or the Sikh religion could be deemed to be a member of the Scheduled Caste.

It is necessary to find the exact number of persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Tribes and also

to assess their economic and social conditions compared to the more advanced communities from time to time. One of the directive principles of the Indian Constitution is to pay special attention to their welfare. In the Presidential Order these communities are listed out with reference to the localities where they live. A community which is recognized as Scheduled Caste in one area may not be accepted as such in another area according to the list. Hence enquiries about Scheduled Castes and Tribes have to be conducted very carefully. In Kerala some persons belonging originally to Scheduled Castes have embraced Christianity. According to the definition of the Scheduled Castes a convert from Scheduled Caste to Christianity cannot be treated as belonging to Scheduled Caste. However there is no such restriction on Scheduled Tribes. Hence enumerators had to be given instructions to put searching questions to those who claimed to belong to the Scheduled Castes or Tribes and verify their claim with reference to the list applicable to that area.

Eighty million people in India, according to the 1971 Census, belong to Scheduled Castes. They make up 14.6 per cent of the population of the country. As many communities in different states have been declared as Scheduled Castes, their numbers differ from state to state. In Kerala State the persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes number about 1.8 million and account for 8.3 per cent of the population. In the other states in South India, the proportion of Scheduled Caste population to the total population is slightly higher. In Punjab, it is highest, 24.7 per cent of the population of the State belong to the Scheduled Castes. Of the total Scheduled Caste population in India only 2.22 per cent live in Kerala whereas 23.19 per cent belong to Uttar Pradesh and 11.02 per cent to West Bengal.

The Scheduled Caste population of Kerala as revealed by the 1971 Census is 1,772,168. They are found in all the districts of Kerala in varying numbers. As much as 15.84 per cent of the total number live in Quilon district. In Cannanore and Kozhikode districts only 3.26 per cent and 4.31 per cent of the total Scheduled Caste population are found. The southern districts of the State have a higher percentage of persons belonging to those communities than the northern districts.



They prefer to live in the rural areas in all the districts. The reason is obvious. Most of them are engaged in agriculture and other occupations which are typically rural. As much as 90.32 per cent of the total population live in the rural areas of the State. In Malappuram 96.07 per cent and in Quilon 95.13 per

cent of the Scheduled Caste population live in the rural areas of the respective districts. In Kozhikode, Trivandrum and Ernakulam districts their distribution between rural and urban areas is more or less in the pattern of the other communities.

In larger cities, their proportion to the total population is still less. In Cochin, Trivandrum and Calicut Corporations they make up 3.46, 6.62 and 2.56 per cent of the population of the cities respectively, whereas 8.3 per cent of the total population of the State belong to the Scheduled Castes.

The growth rate of the Scheduled Caste population during the decade 1961-71 shows no appreciable deviation from the general growth rate of the population of the country. The Scheduled Caste population increased by 24.12 per cent against a general increase of 24.80 per cent. In Kerala State, the Scheduled Caste population registered a growth rate of 23.51 per cent whereas the total population increased by 26.29 per cent during the same period. Their growth rate in the districts showed wide variation ranging from 15.76 per cent in Kottayam to 32.67 per cent in Cannanore. There was also notable increase in Trivandrum and Ernakulam districts which recorded a growth rate of 31.95 and 27.67 per cent respectively.

One of the main items in the census enquiry is the literacy of the population. This is more important in the case of Scheduled Castes which are comparatively backward. The literacy index is undoubtedly a measure of the progress achieved by any community. The literacy rate of the Scheduled Castes in Kerala State according to the latest Census is 40.21 per cent as against the general literacy rate of 60.42 per cent in the State. This is of course not satisfactory. The Scheduled Castes are far behind the other communities in the rate of

literacy. The fact that the literacy rate of the Scheduled Castes in our state is higher than the general literacy rate in many other states in India is no reason for complacency. There has been substantial progress in their literacy rate during the last decade. It has increased from 35.94 to 50.72 per cent in the urban areas and from 23.37 to 39.09 per cent in the rural areas. This shows that the various measures taken by the Government to spread literacy among the backward communities have begun to bear fruit.

The district-wise literacy rate of the Scheduled Castes is in the same pattern as the other communities, though they are behind the other communities in literacy. In districts where the general literacy rate is low, the rate of literacy of the Scheduled Castes is also low. In the highly literate districts, the Scheduled Castes are not so backward as in the other districts, though in both regions they have not reached parity with the more advanced communities. In Palghat, Cannanore and Malappuram their literacy rate is below 26 per cent whereas in all other districts it is above 39 per cent. In Alleppey, where the rate of literacy is highest in the State, the literacy rate of the Scheduled Castes is also comparatively high. It is 54.40 per cent.

Several backward communities are listed as Scheduled Castes. Their literacy rates differ widely. In 1961, there were seven castes among them with a literacy rate of below 10 per cent. At the same time there were 4 castes with literacy rates ranging from 50 to 59 per cent. No caste had reached a literacy rate of 60 per cent or more. Tremendous improvement took place during the last decade. Still there are two castes 'Gavara' and 'Maila' with a literacy rate of below 10 per cent. But there are also five castes in the range of 50 to 59 per cent literacy rate and eight castes have moved up to a rate of 60 per cent or more. The

Scheduled Castes in the highest range of literacy are Bharatar, Kakkalan, Mannan, Paravan, Pathiyan, Perumannan, Vannan and Velan. This shows that all castes among the Scheduled Castes in the State are going steadily up in the rate of literacy.

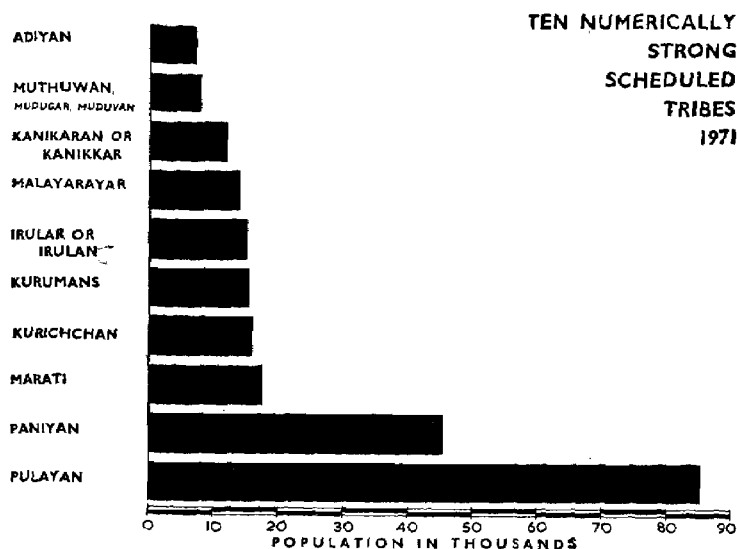
Scheduled Tribes in the country have also been singled out for special consideration. Due to long isolation from the other communities, the Scheduled Tribes have been able to preserve in tact their own way of life. They still observe taboos and conventions unknown to modern society. Their settlements are mostly in hilly areas and they have little contact with the outside world. In Kerala their settlements are in the Western Ghats and the low lying hills near the boundary of the State with Tamil Nadu and Mysore State. They were once known as 'Kattujathi' in Travancore and Cochin areas and 'Kattu Kuruman' in the Malabar area. These names indicate that they are people of the forest.

In the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Lists (Modification) Order, 1956 mention was made of 38 tribes in Kerala State. But in 1961 Census only 34 tribes were actually enumerated. In the 1971 Census two tribes out of them 'Kota' and 'Palliyan' did not find a place but two other tribes 'Konda Kapus' and 'Maha Mallesar' were newly located. As a result the number of tribes remains at 34.

The tribal population of India according to the 1971 Census was 38 million accounting for 6.94 per cent of the total population. It is a little less than half the Scheduled Caste population of the country. The proportion of the tribal population to the total population varies from state to state. Only 0.2 per cent of the population of Uttar Pradesh is tribal whereas they make up 88.6 per cent and 80.5 per cent of the population

of Nagaland and Meghalaya respectively. Among the Union Territories Goa, Daman and Diu has the lowest tribal population. 92.9 per cent of the population of L.M. & A. Islands are tribal. In South Indian States tribal population is comparatively small. In both Mysore and Tamil Nadu they account for only 0.8 per cent and in Andhra Pradesh 3.8 per cent of the population. The total tribal population of Kerala is 269,356 making up 1.26 per cent of the population of the State.

Due to the peculiar pattern of their settlements and traditional occupations, the Scheduled Tribes are concentrated in certain parts of the State. While the tribal



population of Cannanore district is 90,464, that of Alleppey is only 435. As much as 65.14 per cent of the total tribal population of Kerala live in two districts Cannanore and Kozhikode. They are also found in fairly large numbers in Palghat and Kottayam districts. Only

a few of them live in the other districts. In Alleppey district which has no hilly regions, the tribal population makes up only 0.16 per cent of the tribal population of the State.

They prefer to live in the rural areas. Only 4.04 per cent of the tribal population live in urban areas. In Kottayam and Quilon districts not even one per cent of the tribal population of the districts are found in the urban areas. In the major towns they are just a handful and go unnoticed. In a population of over 4 lakhs in Cochin and Trivandrum Corporations, the tribal population is only 196 and 122 respectively. The position is not very different in Calicut Corporation where they number 396.

While the population of Kerala increased by 26.29 per cent, during the decade 1961-71 the tribal population registered a growth rate of 26.60 per cent. Their rate of increase was higher than that of the Scheduled Castes during the same period. They make up only 0.71 per cent of the total tribal population of the country and 1.26 per cent of the total population of Kerala.

The literacy rate of Scheduled Tribes is only 25.72 per cent as against 40.21 per cent in the case of Scheduled Castes. It so happens that a larger section of Scheduled Tribe population is found in districts which are generally backward in the rate of literacy. In Palghat district their rate of literacy is only 7.13 per cent. In Ernakulam, Kottayam, Alleppey and Trivandrum districts their literacy rates are much higher. The highest rate is of course in Alleppey district with 60 per cent. But the Scheduled Tribe population in Alleppey district is so small that it does not improve much the position of the community in general.

In 1961 there were 10 tribes with a literacy rate of below 10 per cent and there was only one tribal community having a literacy rate between 50 to 59 per cent. There was none in the higher ranges of literacy rate. Now also there are 9 tribes with a literacy rate of below 10 per cent. But there are also two tribes with a literacy rate of 60 per cent or above. They are Malai Arayan and Malayarayar. Malai Arayan moved up from 40 to 49 per cent literacy range and Malayarayar from 50 to 59 per cent range to the highest range of 60 per cent or above during the last decade.

Small tribes and castes with a population of less than 100 each have not been taken into account in assessing the progress in literacy.

CHAPTER VIII

Our main activities

The economic activity of the people of a country depends on many factors. One among them is the demographic situation in the country. Very young children and old persons are unable to take part actively in work. In India 42.02 per cent of the population are children below 15 years of age.

Many children continue their studies beyond the age of 15 years and many more leave school before that age in order to earn a living. People normally retire from active work by the age of sixty but some continue to work beyond that age. The working force of a country is understood to be made up of people between 15 and 60 years of age. But many people in the working age group are not actually workers due to various reasons. In our country the problem of unemployment and under-employment is very acute. Many are willing to work but only a few get the opportunity to work.

One of the purposes of a population census is to collect data on the economic activity of the people. Many countries use the statistics collected through the census for social and economic planning. The classification of the population into economically active and inactive can be done based either on 'the production of goods

and services approach' or 'the dependency approach'. In the former case it is ascertained whether the person enumerated is engaged in any economically productive activity or not. In the latter case it is assessed whether or not the cost of maintenance of the individual is wholly or partly met by the person's own income as distinct from any economic activity in which he is engaged. According to the 'dependency approach' the population can be classified into groups such as (1) self-supporting persons (2) earning dependents and (3) non-earning dependents. The main difference between these two approaches is seen in the classification of persons who support themselves wholly or partly through the receipt of pensions, dividends, rents etc. According to one concept they are not economically active but according to the other they are classified as self-supporting or earning dependents. 'The production of goods and services approach' seems to be a better basis to describe the economic activity of the individual.

A worker, in the 1971 Census, was defined as a person whose main activity was participation in any economically productive work by his physical or mental activity. The classification of the population into workers and non-workers was based on the 'main activity' of the individuals, as recorded in their Individual Slips. Persons who returned themselves as housewives, students, or retired persons for their main activity were classified as non-workers. Any marginal contribution made by them in the field of economic activity was considered as their secondary activity. It seems that the basis of classifications was not so rigid in 1961 and that even students who participated in some work during their spare time were treated as economically active. Due to the emphasis placed on main activity, a housewife who engaged herself in some household industry during her spare time to augment her family income was treated as a non-worker in the 1971 Census. Hence

the classification of the population into workers and non-workers in 1961 and 1971 is not strictly comparable.

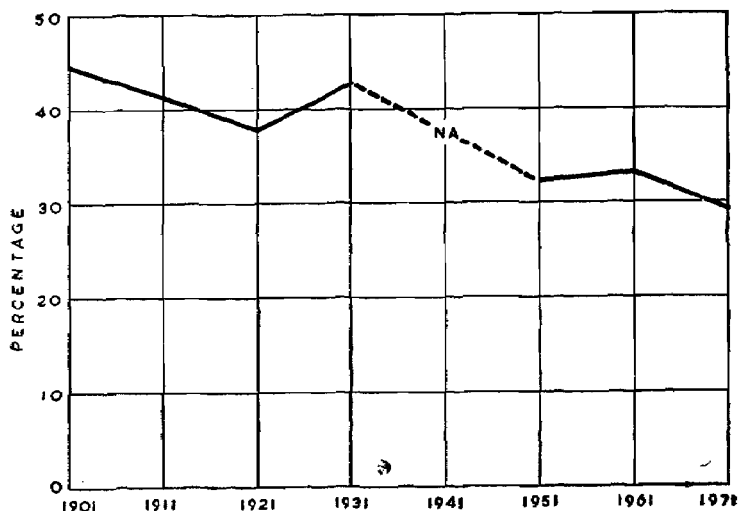
In the more developed countries of the world the proportion of economically active population is comparatively high. It means that large sections of the population contribute actively to the prosperity of those countries. According to censuses conducted after 1960, the economically active population of U.K., U.S.A., U.S.S.R., Australia, France, and Japan were 46.7, 40.9, 47.8, 42.0, 41.1 and 49.8 per cent of the population of the respective countries. But in India, the percentage of workers to total population was only 32.92 according to the 1971 Census.

In the various states in India, the rate of participation in work differs widely. It depends on many factors like the natural resources of the State, kinds of occupations available, whether labour-intensive or not, and the degree of unemployment and under-employment prevailing in the State. Where occupations are such that men and women take part, the degree of participation is naturally high. In Nagaland 50.75 per cent of the population are economically active whereas in Haryana only 26.44 per cent of the population are returned as workers. In Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu, 36.48 and 35.78 per cent of the population of the respective states are workers. In Kerala, the participation in work is comparatively low at 29.12 per cent. Among the Union Territories, 57.65 per cent of the population of Arunachal Pradesh are workers whereas only 26.15 per cent of the population of L.M. and A. Islands are economically active.

According to the 1971 Census, out of a population of 213 lakhs only 62 lakhs are workers in Kerala. Not even one-third of the population is economically active. This low rate of participation in work is due to various reasons. There is a natural limitation to the rate of participation in work due to the presence of a comparatively large percentage of children of school-going age

in the population. The large scale unemployment among persons in the working age group is a serious problem facing the State. During the last seven decades for which figures are available the employment position in the State has been steadily deteriorating. In 1901, the rate of participation in work was 44.50 per cent. By 1951, it came down to 32.27. It slightly improved to 33.31 in 1961. It has gone down to 29.12 per cent in 1971, the lowest since 1901. Of course the change of

WORKING FORCE PARTICIPATION IN KERALA, 1901-1971



definition of the term 'worker' from census to census, has affected the rates to some extent. In 1971, the classification was based strictly on 'main activity' and so many persons who made marginal contribution to work were classified as non-workers. But this explains only in part the steep fall in the rate of economically active population. The fact seems to be that opportunities

for work have not increased at the same rate as the increase of population during the past several decades.

According to the definition of worker adopted in the Census, men are economically more active than women in all the countries of the world. A housewife doing her own household duties is considered a non-worker whereas her maid servant who may actually do much less work is considered as a worker. There are also certain types of occupations in which the rate of participation by women is comparatively low. A lower rate of literacy, a much lower proportion of technically qualified hands and social conventions preventing women from taking up certain types of occupations are some of the other reasons for the poor rate of participation of women in economically productive activities. However there is no reason to think that women are comparatively lazy because many of them who are considered as non-workers are actually busy with their own household duties. According to the latest figures available, in U.K., U.S.A., U.S.S.R. and Japan, 29.3, 28.6, 41.5 and 38.6 per cent of the female population in the respective countries are economically active whereas in India only 11.85 per cent of the female population are workers.

In our country atleast, it is wrong to presume that the rate of participation in work by women depends on their rate of literacy. In some of the states in India where the rate of literacy among females is very low, their rate of participation in work is comparatively very high. In Nagaland, Meghalaya and Andhra Pradesh, 45.24, 34.57 and 24.16 per cent respectively of the females are workers whereas in Kerala, where the rate of literacy is highest, only 13.49 per cent of the females are workers. It is true that in Kerala women are fairly well represented in white collar jobs whereas in other states they are almost shut out of such jobs due to lack of education. Women's participation in work is governed more by the types of occupations available and

social conventions than by their rate of literacy. There are certain occupations like agriculture and household industry which employ a large proportion of women. In Kerala agriculture and cashew and coir industries absorb a large number of uneducated women workers.

In the more developed countries of the world, the number of male workers is about double that of the female workers. In India, it is about five times. But the conditions in the various states in India do not stand comparison. In Nagaland and Meghalaya, the number of male workers is less than double that of female workers whereas in Punjab it is nearly fifty times. In Kerala, it is more than three times.

In our country, between 1961 and 1971, there has been a sharp fall in the percentage of workers to total population in spite of the efforts made to tackle the unemployment problem. The percentage of workers came down from 42.96 to 32.92 at the all-India level and from 33.31 to 29.12 in Kerala during the decade. It appears that women suffered more than men from lack of employment opportunities during this period. In the country, while the percentage of male workers came down from 57.08 to 52.50 that of the female workers came down from 27.94 to 11.85. In other words, the percentage of female workers to female population was reduced to half during the last decade. In Kerala, while the percentage of male workers came down from 47.20 to 45, that of the female workers came down from 19.71 to 13.49. Perhaps, quite a large number of women, making a marginal contribution to work during their spare time but mainly engaged in their own household duties would have lost their status as workers due to the strict classification of workers and non-workers based on main activity adopted in 1971.

Let us find out the types of economic activities in which our workers are engaged. There is no doubt

that agriculture and allied occupations absorb a large percentage of workers. We are familiar with the slogan 'industrialize or perish'. There is a limit to the number of workers who can be employed in the agricultural sector and the future depends on the diversification of employment opportunities especially in fields like industry and commerce in which there is greater scope for development. In the census of 1971 the workers were grouped into 9 industrial categories. They were:—

- I Cultivators
- II Agricultural labourers
- III Live-stock, forestry, fishing, hunting and plantations, orchards and allied activities
- IV Mining and quarrying
- V Manufacturing, processing, servicing and repairs,
 - (a) Household industry
 - (b) Other than household industry
- VI Construction
- VII Trade and commerce
- VIII Transport, storage and communications
- IX Other services

A classification of non-workers also into various groups is useful. Some are not working because they are full-time students or doing their own household duties. However there are persons among the non-workers who are looking for jobs and are prepared to work if they are given the opportunity. They have to be provided with jobs. The non-workers are classified as (1) those attending to household duties (2) students, (3) retired persons, rentiers and persons of independent means, (4) infants and dependents, (5) beggars and vagrants, (6) inmates of institutions like jails, mental hospitals etc. and (7) others. The actual number of non-workers in each group is not known at present. Hence the extent of unemployment in the State cannot be assessed now.

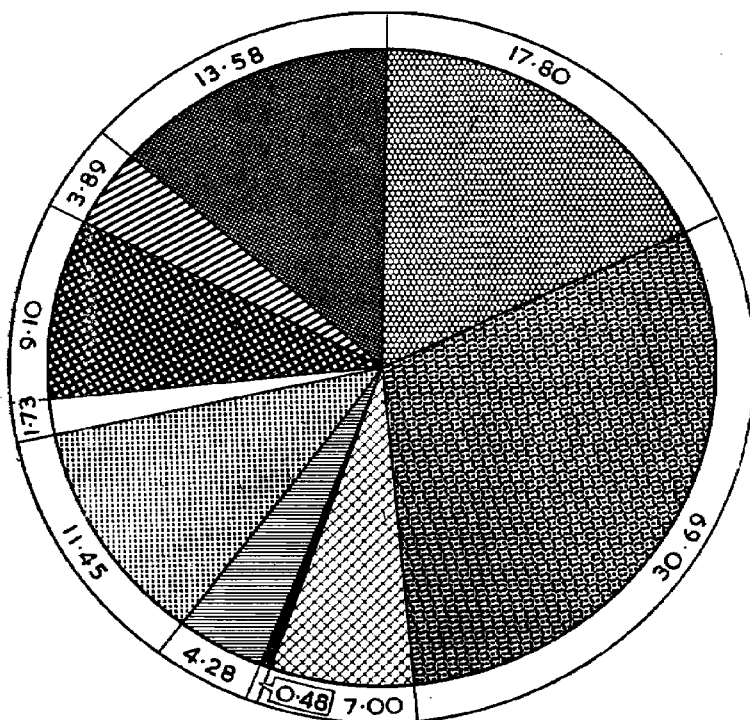
The distribution of workers by industrial categories is given below:—

Industrial category		Number	Percentage to total population	Percentage of workers to total workers
Total Workers		6,216,459	29.12	100.00
I	Cultivators	1,106,663	5.18	17.80
II	Agricultural labourers	1,908,114	8.94	30.69
III	Live-stock, forestry, fishing, hunting and plantations, orchards and allied activities	434,829	2.04	7.00
IV	Mining and quarrying	29,886	0.14	0.48
V	Manufacturing, processing, servicing and repairs			
	(a) Household industry	265,892	1.25	4.28
	(b) Other than household industry	711,962	3.34	11.45
VI	Construction	107,449	0.50	1.73
VII	Trade and commerce	565,648	2.65	9.10
VIII	Transport, storage & communications	242,089	1.13	3.89
IX	Other services	843,927	3.95	13.58

The largest number of persons among workers are agricultural labourers. They form 30.69 per cent of the total number of workers. The cultivators, the next largest category, make up only 17.80 per cent of the workers. There are only two other categories which provide employment for more than 10 per cent of the total workers. They are 'other services' and 'manufacturing and processing other than household industry'.

DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS, 1971

PERCENTAGE



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CULTIVATORS		OTHER THAN HOUSEHOLD INDUSTRY	
AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS		CONSTRUCTION	
LIVESTOCK, FORESTRY, FISHING, HUNTING etc.		TRADE AND COMMERCE	
MINING AND QUARRYING		TRANSPORT, STORAGE AND COMMUNICATIONS	
HOUSEHOLD INDUSTRY		OTHER SERVICES	

Though the broad pattern in employment is the same all over the country, there are significant differences which highlight the special conditions prevailing in Kerala. In India, the cultivators and agricultural labourers are the predominant categories of workers but the order of strength is just the reverse of that in Kerala. While in India, the largest category, is cultivators, in Kerala, the largest category, is agricultural labourers and cultivators come only second. These two categories put together absorb 69.67 per cent of the total workers in India while in Kerala, they account for only 48.50 per cent of the workers. No other industrial category accounts for even 10 per cent of the workers in India. But in Kerala, other services and industries, other than household industries, both employ more than 10 per cent each of the total workers in the State. The very high man-land ratio in Kerala necessarily limits the scope for expansion of the employment potential in the agricultural sector. The shortfall in this sector has not been effectively made up by the expansion in other fields of employment, particularly in industries.

In 1961 also workers were grouped into 9 industrial categories and only minor modifications were made in 1971. The last decade has not brought about any revolutionary changes in the employment pattern. There was no notable expansion of the employment opportunities and but for certain regroupings due to changes in the concept of workers, the economy presents a picture of stagnation. The total number of workers increased from 56.3 lakhs to 62.2 lakhs, a mere 10.41 per cent whereas the population increased by 26.29 per cent during the same period. In certain individual categories like 'manufacturing other than household industries', 'trade and commerce' and 'transport, storage and communications', there was a steady increase of workers.

The number of cultivators decreased from 11.8 lakhs to 11 lakhs, and agricultural labourers registered an abnormal increase from 9.8 lakhs to 19.0 lakhs. The changes can be explained by reproducing the definitions of cultivators and agricultural labourers and the possibility of one category gaining strength at the expense of other either due to mistake in classification or due to actual changes brought about by economic forces. A cultivator is one who is engaged in the cultivation of land in his capacity as the owner or lessee of land held from Government or as tenant of the land held from private persons or institutions for payment of money, kind or share. An agricultural labourer is a person who works in another person's land for wages in cash or in kind. He could have no right of lease or contract on land on which he works. The decrease in the number of cultivators can be due to two reasons, one, an actual change of status from cultivator to agricultural labourer and the other a stricter classification based on main activity by which a person who cultivates his own small holding but works most of the time as an agricultural labourer is included in the industrial category of agricultural labourers and not cultivators. As a matter of fact the fragmentation of agricultural land into uneconomic holdings has forced many cultivators to become labourers in the agricultural sector. Though there has been a drastic reduction in the number of cultivators and an abnormal increase in the number of agricultural labourers, when these two allied categories are clubbed together, there is only an increase from 21.6 lakhs to 30.1 lakhs.

There was a large scale reduction in the number of persons engaged in household industries during the decade 1961-71. Their number came down from 4.9 lakhs to 2.7 lakhs. Although household industries have not been doing very well during this period, it is not correct to presume that so many were thrown out of

employment from household industry during the past decade. A housewife who does her own household duties and engages herself in some household industry during her spare time is classified as a non-worker according to the 1971 Census. It is possible that she was considered as a worker in the industrial category of household industry in the earlier census due to her marginal contribution to work. Hence the reduction of workers in this category does not seem to speak of any disaster that has befallen to this branch of economic activity in the State though it indicates a state of stagnation.

In the category of 'other services' also there was an abnormal reduction in the number of workers from 14.2 lakhs to 8.4 lakhs during 1961-71. This is merely due to the inclusion of all workers whose activities were unspecified or inadequately described, in this category during 1961. By and large, the pattern of employment remains the same. The expected increase in opportunities for employment did not materialise.

Though the rate of participation in work is comparatively less among females, there is hardly any industrial category in which they are not represented. In Kerala 44.48 per cent of those employed in household industry are women. This is the highest rate of participation in any category of work by women. It may also be mentioned that 37.33 per cent of agricultural labourers, 29.27 per cent of those engaged in other services and 25.09 per cent of those employed in industries excluding household industries are women. In other categories of work their representation is often nominal. In absolute numbers agricultural labourers numbering about 7.1 lakhs is the strongest working force among women. Household industries absorb 1.2 lakhs, other industries 1.8 lakhs and other services 2.5 lakhs of female workers. The high rate of literacy among women

has earned for them better representation in clerical and administrative services than in the other states in India. In industries, women, mostly uneducated, are employed in large numbers because the coir and cashew industries in Kerala are labour-intensive and women are particularly adept in them. Categories like construction, trade and commerce, transport and communications, mining and quarrying are still the strongholds of male workers who account for more than 90 per cent of the employment in each of them. Women cultivators make up only 6.08 per cent of the total number of cultivators whereas women agricultural labourers account for 37.33 per cent of the total number of agricultural labourers.

Among the workers 84.95 per cent live in rural areas and 15.05 per cent in the urban areas of the State. Apparently there is a slightly higher rate of workers in rural areas as only 83.76 per cent of the total population is rural. But there is more under employment in rural areas as rural occupations like agricultural operations are mostly seasonal. Rural occupations absorb a comparatively higher proportion of female workers than urban occupations. In the rural areas the rate of participation in work by males is a little more than three times that of females whereas in urban areas it is more than four times.

Workers in the primary sector, composed of agriculture and allied occupations, are concentrated in the rural areas of the State. While household industry is typically rural, manufacturing other than household industry is a predominantly urban occupation. Construction, trade and commerce, transport, storage and communications and other services have larger number of workers in the urban areas.

The percentage of workers to total population of the State is 29.12. In the districts also, the rate of participation in work is equally poor. In Palghat and Cannanore districts 35.89 and 30.21 per cent respectively of the population are workers. But in Kozhikode district, the workers make up only 26.92 per cent of the population. When male workers alone are taken into consideration the variation in percentage of workers is negligible. What really contributes to the higher rate of participation in work in a district is the larger percentage of women workers in the district. In Palghat district 33.52 per cent of the total workers are women whereas in Kozhikode only 17.54 per cent are women.

The special resources of a district are reflected more in the predominance of certain industrial categories of workers than in the rate of participation in work. For example the largest number of cultivators are found in Quilon district whereas the largest number of agricultural labourers are found in Palghat district. There is a concentration of workers belonging to the third category in Kottayam district because of the large number of tea, rubber, and cardamom plantations in the high ranges of that district. In household industry Alleppey takes the lead in the strength of workers because it is the home of the coir industry in the State. Though Ernakulam is the most industrialized district in the State, it comes only second to Quilon in the number of industrial workers because the cashew industries in Quilon district are more labour-intensive. Ernakulam district, with the facilities of Cochin harbour, is far ahead of the other districts in the employment of workers in trade and commerce, and transport, storage and communications. Trivandrum district, with the capital of the State located in it, has the highest number of workers in other services consisting of clerical, administrative and other white collar jobs.

All the districts of the State are not equally urbanized. The urban workers who make up only 15.05 per cent of the workers of the State are distributed unequally in the districts. In Malappuram, Palghat, Kottayam, Quilon, Cannanore and Trichur districts, the percentage of urban workers is less than 15 per cent of the total workers in the respective districts. In Malappuram district only 6.34 per cent of the workers live in the urban areas. In Ernakulam, Kozhikode, Alleppey, and Trivandrum districts, more than 15 per cent of the total workers in each district live in the urban areas of the district. In Ernakulam, the urban workers account for 26.34 per cent of the total number of workers in the district.

It is strange but true that the backward communities are economically more active, though their standard of living is poor. Out of 1,772,168 persons belonging to Scheduled Castes in the State 759,538 are found to be workers. In other words, 42.86 per cent of them are workers, though in the State as a whole only 29.12 per cent of the population are workers. But the type of work they do makes a large difference in their level of income and standard of living. The return they get for their work is too small and many of them are only poorly paid seasonal workers. The distribution of Scheduled Caste workers among the industrial categories throw more light on their economic conditions. They are traditionally agricultural labourers. 28.26 per cent of the Scheduled Caste population are agricultural labourers whereas only 8.94 per cent of the general population belong to this category. There are only a few cultivators among them which means that most of them work for wages. In forestry, fishing, plantation and allied activities they are well represented. They are inadequately represented in trade and commerce, transport and communications and manufacturing other than

household industry. Mining and quarrying and household industries come well within their sphere of activity.

The number of workers among the tribal population of 269,356 in the State is 111,598. Their rate of participation in work is slightly less than that of Scheduled Castes but higher than that of the general population. Their distribution among the industrial categories follows more or less the same pattern as the Scheduled Castes and maintains the deviations from the general pattern. However, there is an important difference, in that among the Scheduled Tribes the proportion of cultivators is almost on a par with the general population. The proportion of agricultural labourers is high compared to the general pattern but does not reach the level of that of the Scheduled Castes. The only other categories in which they are well represented are forestry, plantation and the allied activities. In all the other avenues of work, their representation is far below the State average and does not even reach the level of the Scheduled Castes who are themselves poorly represented in those categories.

CHAPTER IX

Summing up

Said to be reclaimed from the sea by a legendary warrior by a mighty heave of his battle-axe and ruled by kings who traced their ancestry to the sun and the moon, the Malabar coast has never ceased to attract the attention of the world. It was the lucrative trade in spices and ivory that brought foreigners to its shores in the ancient past. Later western nations fought against one another to gain a foot-hold on the Malabar coast and to monopolise the trade. Adventurers and traders were followed by missionaries, scholars and travellers. All the great religions of the world got warm reception in Malabar. Kerala, the State formed by the integration of the Malayalam speaking areas on the Malabar coast in 1956, has also been in the lime light due to various reasons. Its scenic beauty continues to attract tourists from far and near. The chronic political instability in the State has often been commented upon. It has been described sometimes as a 'problem state'. There are of course problems but they are primarily economic and not particularly political in nature.

What are the special features of Kerala? The land and the population have been dealt with in the preceding chapters. We have too little land and too many people and in the present stage of development it is our most serious problem. The economic consequences of the situation and geographic features of the State need special mention. The high mountain wall on the east and the Arabian Sea on the west ensure a heavy and regular rainfall. There are many rivers but they

are short as the distance between the sea and the mountain is small. There are steep falls with vast potential for the generation of hydro-electric power and irrigation facilities. The fairly long coastal line, and the large number of backwaters and lagoons add not only to the characteristic scenic beauty of Kerala but also provide natural facilities for fishing and coir industry. Due to heavy rain and sloping terrain soil erosion takes place, the land gradually becomes less fertile and the soil deficient in mineral contents.

The State is not known to have any resource of oil or coal. The absence of basic minerals like coal, iron and copper is a serious impediment to industrial development. The beach sands however are a good source of titanium bearing ilmenite. Fortunately the State has immense potentiality for the generation of hydro-electric power and if properly developed this can compensate for the absence of fossil fuels.

The leading role of agriculture in the development of the country and the vast employment potential in this sector have already been discussed. The distinctive characteristics of this sector in Kerala deserve special emphasis. First and foremost the high pressure of population on land has rendered a large part of the rural population traditionally dependent on agriculture either unemployed or under-employed. Secondly the cultivation of cash crops is better organized in Kerala than elsewhere in the country.

In Kerala, only about 56 per cent of the total area of the State is available for cultivation, the rest being forests and uncultivable lands. In the country as a whole about 70 per cent of the cropped area is under food grains but in Kerala only about 30 per cent is under food grains. On the otherhand more than 50 per cent of the cultivable area is under commercial

crops like tea, rubber, coconut, cardamom etc. This cropping pattern has its own advantages and disadvantages. It earns valuable foreign exchange for the country by the export of commercial crops. It also creates a huge deficit in food grains which sustain the population. Only about 55 per cent of our requirements in rice is produced in the State. For the balance we have to depend on the supply from outside the State. Self sufficiency in food grains at the national level is more easily reached than at the regional level but shortages even at the national level and difficulties in import and distribution have been causing terrible anxiety in the State.

Increase in the production of rice, the staple diet of the people is given priority in the development of agriculture. It can be done by an expansion of the gross area under the crop and improved agricultural practices which involve the use of high yielding strains, judicious application of fertilizers, timely use of pesticides and provision of adequate irrigation facilities. As for the expansion of the area under the crop, there is hardly any land in the State which can be newly brought into cultivation.

However by various schemes like reclamation of problem areas, changing cropping pattern, Kuttanad development, *Kole* land development and development of rice lands in the high ranges, it is envisaged in the Draft Outline of the Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-79) brought out by the State Planning Board that the gross area under rice would increase from 875 thousand hectares in 1971-72 to 1,150 thousand hectares in 1978-79.

Already, the intensity of cropping, defined as the ratio between the gross cropped area and the net cropped area is high in Kerala. But it is stated that there is scope for experimentation in this field by evolving a desirable crop-mix pattern. In some areas it may be

possible to convert single crop paddy lands into double crop ones. The yield is not poor in Kerala but there again more scientific methods of cultivation can bring about an increase in production.

Kerala is in a happy position in the cultivation of plantation crops both on a large scale and in small holdings. The climate and terrain are suitable for further development of the plantation industry which can earn valuable foreign exchange for the country. But scarcity of land even for cultivation of the much needed food crops and other factors have slackened sustained progress even in certain plantation crops in which Kerala has a monopoly.

The basic problem of Kerala is its high density of population. Today it is more than three times the all-India average. The growth rate of population has always been higher in this State than the average for the country. During the decade 1961-71 while the population of the country increased by 24.8 per cent the population of Kerala registered a net increase of 26.29 per cent. During the previous decade the population of Kerala increased only by 24.76 per cent. In absolute numbers, while the net addition to the population was 33.55 lakhs during 1951-61, in the next decade the increase was 44.43 lakhs.

This is inspite of the family planning programme which had been gaining momentum in the State during the last decade. The reason for the accelerated growth rate of population in Kerala is not an unusually high birth rate. In *S.R.S. Analytical Series-No. 2, 1972* brought out by the Vital Statistical Division of the Office of the Registrar General, India, it is stated that Kerala recorded the lowest death rate of 10.0 in 1968 and 9.0 in 1969. Taking the average of both years 1968 and 1969 the death rate was lowest in Kerala with 9.5 and highest in Uttar Pradesh with 24.6. It was further observed that Kerala had the lowest age-specific death rates, the lowest

death rate in the youngest age group 0-4 and the lowest infant mortality rate. In the older age groups also, the age-specific mortality is low compared with the other states in India. In 1969 the crude birth rate per 1,000 population was 31.1 in Kerala, the lowest rate recorded among the States. At the same time the death rate was 9.0, which was by far the lowest among the states, resulting in an accelerated net increase of population. The same trend is noticed on an analysis of the latest data available. According to the Sample Registration figures for 1971, the birth rates for the rural and urban areas of Kerala are 29.8 and 28.9 respectively. The death rates for the corresponding areas are 8.8 and 8.2 respectively. What is the possible consequence of this trend in the growth of population? Even if the birth rate is reduced to 25 by 1979, the end of the Fifth Five Year Plan, the net addition to the population during the decade 1971-81 is not likely to be less than 44 lakhs.

What are the economic consequences of the steeply rising trend in population? Other things remaining the same, the larger the ~~population~~ population, the smaller will be the income per capita. The smaller also will be the ability of the community to save and invest in developmental activities. A further dampening effect on the tempo of development is the increase in expenditure on education, health, and housing demanded by a steadily growing population. The greater the proportion of the people in the younger age groups in the population, the larger will be the expenditure on such items as education and health.

Education was once a passport for securing a decent means of livelihood. It is no longer so especially in Kerala where there is large scale unemployment among the educated. However this has not cooled down the enthusiasm for education among the population of Kerala. Traditionally, Malayalees attach a high premium

on education from the cultural point of view also. Hence expenditure on education will continue to soar up in Kerala. While discussing the rate of literacy in Kerala, the highest in India, it was also pointed out that the expenditure on education is a heavy burden on the State. The Government expenditure on education has increased nearly three and a half times during the decade 1961-71. Among the states in India, Kerala spends the highest share of total expenditure on education. What part of it is spent for the improvement of the quality of education? Very little, as a large share of total increase in expenditure is absorbed by the steep rise in enrolment in schools. Government's expenditure on education, large as it is, represents only a part of the amount spent for the purpose. Every parent also spends a substantial amount for the education of his child. The cost of education has gone up by leaps and bounds during the last decade, without making any improvement in the quality of education, largely because of the steady increase in population.

Similarly, the medical and health services available in Kerala, are said to be second to none in India in quality and coverage. This is maintained at a tremendous cost to the State and at the expense of developmental projects. It is inevitable that expenditure on medical services will go up as the population increases even if only the same level of services is maintained. Along with modern medicine, there is a well developed system of indigenous medical system in Kerala. The poorer sections of the community are given free medical treatment in the Government hospitals. To extend the medical facilities to the remote areas and to make available the benefits of the latest advances in the field of health to the people, Government will have to go on diverting large amounts to the health services.

Another consequence of the accelerated growth rate of population is the increase in the public and

private expenditure on housing. An increase of population means higher expenditure on housing, water supply, transport and allied amenities, even to maintain the same standard of living. More often than not, large sections of the population find it difficult to meet the expenditure for the construction and maintenance of their own houses. When normal aid is found inadequate Government may undertake massive housing programmes such as the scheme for putting up one lakh houses sponsored recently by the Government of Kerala.

Unemployment especially among the educated has brought about an explosive situation in Kerala. As on 31st December 1971, out of 3.67 lakh of registered job seekers as many as 55 per cent were with qualifications of SSLC and above. The situation is getting worse. The number of work seekers in the live registers of Employment Exchanges rose to 4.54 lakhs by 31st December 1972 and of them 2.59 lakhs or 57 per cent were educated. Disquieting as it is, it does not fully reveal the magnitude of the unemployment problem in the State. Many of the unemployed, especially the uneducated, do not bother to register their names in the Employment Exchange. Unemployment even among the professionally and technically qualified has reached alarming proportions. As on 31st December 1972 there were 654 medical graduates and 2,014 engineering graduates seeking employment through the Employment Exchanges. In addition there were 4,163 diploma holders in Engineering and 11,540 I.T.I. Certificate holders among the job seekers. The Committee on Unemployment in Kerala (1971) estimated the total unemployment in 1970 at 9 lakhs and under-employment at 17.78 lakhs. The more desperate position now, is revealed by the sensational news that, when applications were called for 14,000 jobs under the Special Employment Programme in June 1973, the Office of the Kerala Public Service

Commission was flooded with nearly 6 lakhs applications in a matter of days. In spite of massive efforts to solve the problem, full employment is a dream that will not be realised in the near future.

In the context of the large excess of working force, modernization of the existing sectors, perhaps the only means of improving production, is beset with conflicts of interest and confusion. In the primary sector the agricultural labourers get benefits of full employment only in certain seasons and during other times they are mostly under-employed or unemployed. If mechanization is introduced, this sector will require still less man power. But scientific method of cultivation is the only answer to greater production in the absence of more land to be brought under cultivation. The excess labourers have to be absorbed in some other sector if farming is organized on a scientific basis.

Primary activities, other than agriculture, namely animal husbandry, forestry and fisheries, have greater scope for expansion in Kerala. Forests in Kerala are rich in species like teak and rosewood and as a source of industrial raw materials they have not been fully exploited. Kerala is in the forefront among the fish producing states in India. Introduction of mechanized fishing and better fishing gear has increased production. But primitive methods of fishing are still being followed. This means very low production and a large number of fishermen and their families live below the poverty line. Perhaps fishermen are the most depressed class of persons in Kerala and poverty and unemployment among them during certain seasons of the year have drawn the attention of the Government.

The secondary sector covering mining and industry is not highly developed in Kerala. Mining activity is naturally limited by the meagre occurrence of minerals.

But scope for the exploitation of the resources in titanium and China clay is not exhausted.

The traditional industries of Kerala have a weak base. They are marked by low levels of productivity and little new investment is made in those industries. In the non-factory sector coir is the foremost. It provides employment opportunities to a large number of workers. But under the existing conditions, workers are under-employed and hardly get sufficient wages for their existence.

In the factory sector also traditional industries like cashewnut, textile and coir factories are not modernized and due to low levels of production compared to the large working force engaged in them, these industries are not thriving. Kerala has only a few modern industries, with large capital investment. But they are, like all modern industries, not labour-intensive. In a state where there is large scale unemployment, to organize industries on modern lines, requires careful planning. The excess workers, thrown out of employment will have to be absorbed in other industries which involves among other things the investment of huge capital.

However there are some conditions favourable for stepping up the process of industrialization which has been slow and halting during the past decades in Kerala. Among them mention may be made of facilities such as cheap electric power, a well-developed transport system, and a plentiful supply of intelligent and skilled labour. The hydro-electric potential of Kerala has not been fully assessed. It is quite substantial and is about 6 per cent of the total hydro-electric potential of India. It is estimated that the hydro-electric power that can be economically developed in the State is 1,500 MW at 100 per cent load factor or 2,600 MW at 60 per cent load factor. Even in this field the inordinate delay in the

commissioning of the giant Idikki project has affected the pace of industrialization.

There is no doubt that the trend in the growth of population and the other demographic characteristics have a bearing on the social and economic conditions in the State. The population census taken every ten years besides providing a comprehensive picture of the population as on the reference date, yields valuable data for administration and for social and economic planning. In the census, unlike any other type of social enquiry, the entire population is involved. Hence it gives the true demographic situation. The 1971 Census, which marks the centenary of organized census in India, has once again brought to light our resources in men and materials. The over population and the attendant problems in our state still remain unsolved. But there is an all-round awareness of our basic problems. It is hoped that the data collected through the 1971 Census will prove useful for social and economic planning in the State and that a more hopeful and healthy picture of the population will emerge from the next census in 1981.

*Basic facts
and
figures*

FIGURES AT A GLANCE

(1971 CENSUS)

			INDIA	KERALA
POPULATION	Total	Persons	547,949,809	21,347,375
		Males	285,936,614	10,587,851
		Females	264,013,195	10,759,524
	Rural	Persons	438,855,500	17,880,926
		Males	225,218,984	8,852,350
		Females	213,636,516	9,028,576
	Urban	Persons	109,094,309	3,466,449
		Males	58,717,630	1,735,501
		Females	50,376,679	1,730,948
	DECENNIAL GROWTH		Total	24.80
RATE, 1961-71	(percentage)	Rural	21.86	24.61
		Urban	38.22	35.72
BIRTH RATE, 1970		Total	37.0	
(per 1,000 population)		Rural	38.8	31.9
		Urban	29.7	30.1
DEATH RATE, 1970		Total	15.9	
(per 1000 population)		Rural	17.3	9.2
		Urban	10.2	8.8
DENSITY OF POPULATION, 1971		Total	178*	549
(persons per sq. km.)		Rural	148†	477
		Urban	2,505†	2,585
SEX RATIO		Total	930	1,016
(females per 1,000 males)		Rural	949	1,020
		Urban	858	997
PERCENTAGE OF URBAN POPULATION TO TOTAL POPULATION			19.91	16.24

		<i>INDIA</i>		<i>KERALA</i>	
		Number	Percentage to total population	Number	Percentage to total population
LITERATES	Total	161,377,780	29.45	12,898,072	60.42
	Males	112,014,845	39.45	7,054,096	66.62
	Females	49,362,935	18.70	5,843,976	54.31
WORKERS	Total	180,373,399	32.92	6,216,459	29.12
	Males	149,075,136	52.50	4,764,582	45.00
	Females	31,298,263	11.85	1,451,877	13.49
SCHEDULED CASTE		79,995,896	14.60	1,772,168	8.30
SCHEDULED TRIBE		38,015,162	6.94	269,356	1.26
BROAD AGE COMPOSITION					
	Total	547,949,809	100.00	21,347,375	100.00
	0—14	230,253,987	42.02	8,595,262	40.26
	15—59	284,886,839	51.99	11,423,515	53.51
	60+	32,692,765	5.97	1,327,695	6.22
	Age not stated	116,218	0.02	903	0.01
RELIGION					
	Hindus	453,292,086	82.72	12,683,277	59.41
	Muslims	61,417,934	11.21	4,162,718	19.50
	Christians	14,223,382	2.60	4,494,089	21.05
	Sikhs	10,378,797	1.89	1,284	0.01
	Buddhists	3,812,325	0.70	605	N
	Jains	2,604,646	0.47	3,336	0.02
	Others	2,184,556	0.40	562	N
	Religion not stated	36,083	0.01	1,504	0.01

		INDIA		KERALA	
MOTHER TONGUE‡		Number	Percentage to total population	Number	Percentage to total population
(Speakers of Languages included in the Eighth schedule of the Constitution of India)	Assamèse	8,958,977	1.63	33	N
	Bengali	44,792,722	8.17	1,068	N
	Gujarati	25,875,252	4.72	6,583	0.03
	Hindi	162,577,612	29.67	10,265	0.05
	Kannada	21,707,918	3.96	78,537	0.37
	Kashmiri	2,438,360	0.44	23	N
	Malayalam	21,938,231	4.00	20,496,705	96.02
	Marathi	42,251,207	7.71	17,326	0.08
	Oriya	19,855,450	3.62	292	N
	Punjabi	16,449,573	3.00	2,025	N
	Sanskrit	2,212	N	6	N
	Sindhi	1,676,728	0.31	1,740	N
	Tamil	37,690,020	6.88	505,340	2.37
	Telugu	44,752,926	8.17	44,282	0.21
	Urdu	28,607,874	5.22	11,374	0.05

DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS

Total	180,373,399	100.00	6,216,459	100.00
I Cultivators	78,176,707	43.34	1,106,663	17.80
II Agricultural labourers	47,489,383	26.33	1,908,114	30.69
III Livestock, fishing, plantation etc.	4,296,601	2.38	434,829	7.00
IV Mining and quarrying	922,762	0.51	29,886	0.48
V Manufacturing, processing, servicing and repairs				
(a) Household industry	6,351,714	3.52	265,892	4.28

	INDIA		KERALA	
	Number	Percentage to total population	Number	Percentage to total population
(b) Other than household industry	10,715,805	5.94	711,962	11.45
VI Construction	2,215,308	1.23	107,449	1.73
VII Trade and commerce	10,038,243	5.57	565,648	9.10
VIII Transport, storage and communications	4,401,201	2.44	242,089	3.89
IX Other services	15,765,475	8.74	843,927	13.58

*Density has been worked out after excluding figures of area and population of Jammu and Kashmir.

†Density for rural and urban areas have been worked out excluding figures of area and population of Jammu & Kashmir and Arunachal Pradesh.

N—Negligible.

‡Provisional figures.

GROWTH OF POPULATION, 1901-71

Year	India		Kerala	
	Persons	Growth rate	Persons	Growth rate
1	2	3	4	5
1901	238,337,313	..	6,396,262	..
1911	252,005,470	+ 5.73	7,147,673	+ 11.75
1921	251,239,492	-- 0.30	7,802,127	+ 9.16
1931	278,867,430	+ 11.00	9,507,050	+ 21.85
1941	318,539,060	+ 14.23	11,031,541	+ 16.04
1951	360,950,365	+ 13.31	13,549,118	+ 22.82
1961	439,072,582	+ 21.64	16,903,715	+ 24.76
1971	547,949,809	+ 24.80	21,347,375	+ 26.29

AREA, POPULATION, SEX RATIO AND DENSITY BY STATES, 1971

State/Union Territory 1	Area in km ² 2	Persons 3	Growth rate 1961-71 4	Sex ratio (Females per 1,000 males) 5	Number of persons per km ² 6
INDIA	3,280,483†	547,949,809	+24.80	930	178*
STATES					
1 Andhra Pradesh	276,814	43,502,708	+20.90	977	157
2 Assam**	99,610	14,957,542	+34.71	897	150
3 Bihar	173,876	56,353,369	+21.33	954	324
4 Gujarat	195,984	26,697,475	+29.39	934	136
5 Haryana	44,222	10,036,808	+32.23	867	227
6 Himachal Pradesh	55,673	3,460,434	+23.04	958	62
7 Jammu & Kashmir	222,236†	4,616,632	+29.65	878	NA
8 Kerala	38,864	21,347,375	+26.29	1,016	549
9 Madhya Pradesh	442,841	41,654,119	+28.67	941	94
10 Maharashtra	307,762	50,412,235	+27.45	930	164
11 Manipur	22,356	1,072,753	+37.53	980	48
12 Meghalaya	22,489	1,011,699	+31.50	942	45
13 Mysore	191,773	29,299,014	+24.22	957	153
14 Nagaland	16,527	516,449	+39.88	871	31
15 Orissa	155,782	21,944,615	+25.05	968	141
16 Punjab	50,362	13,551,060	+21.70	865	269
17 Rajasthan	342,214	25,765,806	+27.83	911	75
18 Tamil Nadu	130,069	41,159,168	+22.30	976	317
19 Tripura	10,477	1,556,342	+36.28	943	149
20 Uttar Pradesh	294,413	88,341,144	+19.78	879	300
21 West Bengal	87,853	44,312,011	+26.87	891	504
UNION TERRITORIES					
1 Andaman & Nicobar Islands	8,293	115,133	+81.17	644	14
2 Arunachal Pradesh	83,578	467,511	+38.91	861	6
3 Chandigarh	114	257,251	+114.59	749	2,257
4 Dadra and Nagar Haveli	491	74,170	+27.96	1,007	151
5 Delhi	1,485	4,063,698	+52.93	801	2,738
6 Goa, Daman & Diu	3,813	857,771	+36.88	989	225
7 Laccadive, Minicoy & Amindivi Islands	32	31,810	+31.95	978	994
8 Pondicherry	480	471,707	+27.81	989	983

*Density has been worked out after excluding figures of area and population of Jammu & Kashmir

†Includes area under illegal occupation of Pakistan and China.

**Includes Union Territory of Mizoram which was carved out of Assam after the 1971 Census.

POPULATION BY DISTRICTS, 1971

State/District		Area in km ²	Population	Growth rate	Density	Sex ratio
1		2	3	4	5	6
KERALA	T	38,864.0	21,347,375	+26.29	549	1,016
	R	37,522.4	17,880,926	+24.61	477	1,020
	U	1,341.6	3,466,449	+35.72	2,585	997
1 Cannanore	T	5,706.0	2,365,164	+32.85	415	1,017
	R	5,524.9	2,040,260	+37.84	369	1,019
	U	181.1	324,904	- 8.26	1,795	1,008
2 Kozhikode	T	3,729.0	2,106,249	+32.60	565	991
	R	3,529.8	1,544,679	+27.77	438	990
	U	199.2	561,570	+47.97	2,818	995
3 Malappuram	T	3,638.0	1,856,362	+33.80	510	1,041
	R	3,560.1	1,731,510	+32.03	486	1,042
	U	77.9	124,852	+64.35	1,603	1,031
4 Palghat	T	4,400.0	1,685,342	+23.06	383	1,056
	R	4,283.7	1,471,263	+20.53	343	1,062
	U	116.3	214,079	+43.80	1,841	1,021
5 Trichur	T	3,032.0	2,128,797	+26.09	702	1,081
	R	2,930.6	1,878,952	+25.05	641	1,083
	U	101.4	249,845	+34.58	2,464	1,067
6 Ernakulam	T	3,271.0	2,383,178	-27.69	729	983
	R	3,053.1	1,726,288	+17.34	565	994
	U	217.9	656,890	+66.17	3,017	955
7 Kottayam	T	5,389.0	2,085,134	+20.78	326	976
	R	6,276.5	1,871,990	+19.93	298	976
	U	112.5	213,144	-28.81	1,895	977
8 Alleppey	T	1,884.0	2,125,722	+17.73	1,128	1,028
	R	1,743.6	1,766,026	+18.12	1,013	1,030
	U	140.4	359,696	+15.87	2,564	1,020
9 Quilon	T	4,623.0	2,412,821	+23.93	522	1,001
	R	4,583.6	2,222,918	+23.31	485	1,002
	U	39.4	189,903	+31.66	4,832	988
10 Trivandrum	T	2,192.0	2,198,606	+26.03	1,003	1,008
	R	2,036.5	1,627,040	+25.55	799	1,012
	U	155.5	571,566	+27.42	3,676	996

RURAL-URBAN POPULATION, 1971

State/District		Persons	Males	Females
1		2	3	4
KERALA	R	17,880,926	8,852,350	9,028,576
	U	3,466,449	1,735,501	1,730,948
1 Cannanore	R	2,040,260	1,010,547	1,029,713
	U	324,904	161,791	163,113
2 Kozhikode	R	1,544,679	776,209	768,470
	U	561,570	281,555	280,015
3 Malappuram	R	1,731,510	848,028	883,482
	U	124,852	61,487	63,365
4 Palghat	R	1,471,263	713,640	757,623
	U	214,079	105,931	108,148
5 Trichur	R	1,878,952	901,905	977,047
	U	249,845	120,869	128,976
6 Ernakulam	R	1,726,238	865,868	860,420
	U	656,890	336,078	320,812
7 Kottayam	R	1,871,990	947,139	924,851
	U	213,144	107,826	105,318
8 Alleppey	R	1,766,026	870,005	896,021
	U	359,696	178,077	181,619
9 Quilon	R	2,222,918	1,110,172	1,112,746
	U	189,903	95,548	94,355
10 Trivandrum	R	1,627,040	808,837	818,203
	U	571,566	286,339	285,227

POPULATION BY TALUKS, 197

District/Taluk	Population, 1971			Growth rate 1961-71	Density per km ² 1971
	Persons	Males	Females		
1	2	3	4	5	6
1 CANNANORE	2,365,164	1,172,338	1,192,826	+32.85	415
Kasaragod	353,819	178,794	175,025	+30.55	364
Hosdurg	329,201	163,065	166,136	+36.52	333
Taliparamba	435,090	217,056	218,034	+42.84	327
Cannanore	501,766	247,461	254,305	+26.15	1,165
Tellicherry	615,953	299,351	316,602	+29.51	510
North Wynad	129,335	66,611	62,724	+43.39	173
2 KOZHIKODE	2,106,249	1,057,764	1,048,485	+32.60	565
Badagara	409,771	201,291	208,480	+28.09	745
Quilandy	466,714	232,939	235,775	+28.71	619
South Wynad	284,515	148,727	135,788	+53.75	206
Kozhikode	943,249	474,807	468,442	+31.13	919
3 MALAPPURAM	1,856,362	909,515	946,847	+33.80	510
Ernad	715,496	356,253	359,243	+36.47	316
Perintalmanna	273,101	132,979	140,122	+31.89	540
Tirur	653,793	317,445	336,348	+32.72	983
Ponnani	213,972	102,838	111,134	+30.94	1,073
4 PALGHAT	1,685,342	819,571	865,771	+23.06	383
Ottapalam	522,027	249,539	272,488	+22.12	617
Maniarghat	184,579	91,897	92,682	+39.79	168
Palghat	369,001	181,171	187,830	+24.57	512
Chittur	313,973	154,376	159,597	+15.32	272
Alathur	295,762	142,588	153,174	+22.47	520
5 TRICHUR	2,128,797	1,022,774	1,106,023	+26.09	702
Talappilly	403,795	192,220	211,575	+26.35	609
Trichur	588,361	287,109	301,255	+27.37	926
Chavakkad	433,346	200,480	232,866	+23.98	1,416
Kodungallur	112,975	55,084	57,891	+25.12	1,545
Mukundapuram	590,317	287,881	302,436	+26.42	449

POPULATION BY TALUKS, 1971—*contd.*

District/Taluk	Population, 1971			Growth rate 1961-71	Density per km ² 1971
	Persons	Males	Females		
1	2	3	4	5	6
6 ERNAKULAM	2,383,178	1,201,946	1,181,232	+27.69	729
Alwaye	302,176	151,623	150,553	+33.38	926
Parur	181,047	140,408	140,639	-27.07	1,467
Cochin	396,849	200,523	196,326	+26.39	2,817
Kanayannur	498,834	252,072	246,812	+31.30	1,546
Kunnathunad	292,113	146,968	145,145	+27.40	431
Muvattupuzha	370,534	185,798	184,736	+20.25	552
Thodupuzha	241,575	124,554	117,021	+28.94	237
 7 KOTTAYAM	 2,085,134	 1,054,965	 1,030,169	 +20.78	 326
Devicolum	134,350	69,581	64,769	+9.09	76
Udumbanchola	264,913	137,488	127,425	+70.27	247
Peermade	146,841	74,714	72,127	+9.88	112
Meenachil	351,879	176,856	175,023	+13.57	487
Vaikom	252,288	125,954	126,334	+20.77	790
Kottayam	497,156	249,981	247,175	+17.80	920
Kanjirappally	172,360	87,808	84,552	+15.84	491
Changanacherry	265,347	132,583	132,764	+18.23	1,013
 8 ALLEPPEY	 2,125,722	 1,048,082	 1,077,640	 +17.73	 1,128
Shertalai	379,626	189,005	190,621	+21.86	1,184
Ambalapuzha	329,661	164,224	165,437	+22.08	1,844
Kuttanad	187,698	93,751	93,947	+10.92	706
Thiruvalla	342,736	168,334	174,402	+12.14	989
Chengannur	232,218	113,856	118,362	+16.78	1,154
Mavelikkara	323,277	158,202	165,075	+19.03	1,134
Karthigapally	330,506	160,710	169,796	+18.60	1,472
 9 QUILON	 2,412,821	 1,205,720	 1,207,101	 +23.93	 522
Karunagapally	321,164	160,707	160,457	+18.54	1,516
Kunnathur	291,796	145,492	146,304	+22.58	748

POPULATION BY TALUKS, 1971—*concd.*

District/Taluk	Population, 1971			Growth rate 1961-71	Density per km ² 1971
	Persons	Males	Females		
1	2	3	4	5	6
Pathanamthitta	390,150	195,048	195,102	+17.05	197
Pathanapuram	310,639	155,997	154,662	+25.40	252
Kottarakkara	421,406	209,943	211,463	+27.17	764
Quilon	677,646	338,533	339,113	+28.93	1,782
10 TRIVANDRUM	2,198,606	1,095,176	1,103,430	+26.03	1,003
Chirayinkil	460,473	223,109	237,364	+24.36	1,210
Nedumangad	430,779	215,380	215,399	+24.96	465
Trivandrum	747,866	375,307	372,559	+30.65	2,432
Neyyattinkara	559,488	281,380	278,108	+22.39	980

POPULATION BY TOWNS, 1971

City/Town	Population, 1971			Growth rate 1961-71	Density per km ²
	Persons	Males	Females		
1	2	3	4	5	6
<i>CLASS I (100,000 and above)</i>					
1 Cochin	439,066	224,992	214,074	+58.09	4,628
2 Trivandrum	409,627	206,096	203,531	+70.81	5,467
3 Calicut	333,979	168,009	165,970	+51.16	4,040
4 Alleppey	160,166	80,307	79,859	+15.37	3,425
5 Quilon	124,208	62,545	61,663	-36.47	6,721
<i>CLASS II (50,000 — 99,999)</i>					
1 Palghat	95,788	47,776	48,012	-23.41	3,601
2 Trichur	76,241	37,345	38,896	+ 4.39	6,027
3 Tellicherry	68,759	33,738	35,021	+53.61	4,479
4 Kottayam	59,714	30,075	29,639	+13.34	3,840
5 Cannanore	55,162	27,907	27,255	+19.65	5,001
6 Kayamkulam	54,102	26,690	27,412	+21.38	2,483
7 Badagara	53,938	26,902	27,036	+22.84	2,528
<i>CLASS III (20,000 — 49,999)</i>					
1 Changanacherry	48,545	24,195	24,350	+14.56	3,596
2 Kilikolloor	41,871	21,028	20,843	+29.74	3,735
3 Chalakudy	37,562	18,722	18,840	+122.73	1,489
4 Shertalai	36,752	18,164	18,588	+17.97	2,270
5 Ponnani	35,723	17,426	18,297	+55.47	3,833
6 Kasaragod	34,984	17,595	17,389	+26.59	2,097
7 Tirur	32,272	16,009	16,263	+140.89	1,945
8 Malappuram	32,002	15,889	16,113	..	952
9 Kaniangad	31,869	15,971	15,898	+34.92	985
10 Haripad	31,145	15,126	16,019	-52.84	2,335
11 Feroke	30,516	15,294	15,222	+26.50	2,255
12 Chavakkad	29,443	13,643	15,800	+1.87	2,373
13 Pantalayani	28,530	13,826	14,704	+64.38	2,239
14 Cheruvannur	28,522	14,379	14,143	..	2,766
15 Chittur-Thatthamangalam	28,510	14,027	14,483	+7.76	1,938

POPULATION BY TOWNS, 1971—*contd.*

City/Town	Population, 1971			Growth rate 1961-71	Density per km ²
	Persons	Males	Females		
1	2	3	4	5	6
16 Trippunithura	28,090	13,825	14,265	+94.48	2,056
17 Beypore	27,688	14,032	13,656	—19.55	2,660
18 Attingal	27,052	13,274	13,778	+22.68	1,908
19 Thiruvalla	26,683	12,912	13,771	+10.07	1,844
20 Payyannur	26,524	12,620	13,904	..	1,122
21 Ollur	25,957	12,769	13,188	..	3,072
22 Nemom	25,846	12,893	12,953	—27.23	2,122
23 Mayelikkara	25,648	12,416	13,232	+35.17	2,028
24 Irinjalakuda	25,405	12,315	13,090	+13.75	2,260
25 Nileshtar	25,297	12,220	13,077	+20.71	964
26 Ottapalam	24,823	11,971	12,852	+130.23	1,119
27 Parur	24,393	11,958	12,435	+16.98	2,701
28 Alwaye	24,067	12,463	11,604	+15.36	3,352
29 Neyyattinkara	23,983	11,963	12,020	+18.33	2,472
30 Muvattupuzha	22,137	11,396	10,741	—3.33	1,680
31 Shoranur	22,038	10,988	11,050	+54.04	1,281
32 Pappinisseri	21,952	11,039	10,913	+33.69	1,440
33 Kunnaman- galam	21,756	10,789	10,967	..	891
34 Perumbavoor	20,888	10,755	10,133	+29.36	1,537
35 Thodupuzha	20,880	10,840	10,040	..	956
36 Eloor	20,725	11,192	9,533	..	1,987
37 Kanjirappally	20,687	10,675	10,012	+8.66	783
38 Varkala	20,365	9,869	10,496	+169.38	1,981
39 Palai	20,273	10,292	9,981	+31.16	1,273
40 Vaikom	20,014	9,855	10,159	+14.90	2,293
CLASS IV (10,000 — 19,999)					
1 Njarakkal	19,221	9,450	9,771	+21.83	2,235
2 Kunnamkulam	18,367	8,623	9,744	+12.90	2,639
3 Kalamasseri	17,957	9,505	8,452	..	1,406
4 Balaramapuram	17,384	8,777	8,607	—35.33	2,092
5 Taliparamba	16,227	8,135	8,092	—25.85	2,023
6 Guruvayur (Township)	15,863	7,451	8,412	..	2,444

POPULATION BY TOWNS, 1971—concl'd.

City/Town 1	Population, 1971			Growth rate 1961-71 5	Density per km ² 6
	Persons 2	Males 3	Females 4		
7 Manjeri	15,734	7,700	8,034	+28.17	1,186
8 Ettumanoor	15,715	7,987	7,728	+21.93	2,118
9 Kadalundi	15,555	7,542	8,013	+26.60	2,918
10 Nedumangad	14,643	7,247	7,396	..	1,887
11 Kovalam	13,999	7,149	6,850	+28.70	3,406
12 Pazhanji	13,762	6,558	7,204	-17.78	1,783
13 Ponkunnam	13,672	7,081	6,591	..	991
14 Punalur	13,562	6,869	6,693	..	3,349
15 Chengannur	13,316	6,591	6,725	-40.23	2,378
16 Manjeshwar	12,967	6,439	6,528	+28.26	1,382
17 Angamaly	12,932	6,431	6,501	..	1,899
18 Nemmara	12,897	6,226	6,671	+8.03	811
19 Mannarghat	12,580	6,197	6,383	..	1,651
20 Pandalam	11,884	5,871	6,013	+18.84	1,251
21 Eliathur	11,273	5,613	5,660	+31.02	2,202
22 Pattambi	10,411	5,150	5,261	+34.01	1,287
23 Kuthuparamba	10,305	5,136	5,169	..	1,753
24 Kundara	10,262	5,106	5,156	-51.01	1,846
25 Mundakkayam	10,142	5,195	4,947	+80.91	1,932
CLASS V (5,000 — 9,999)					
1 Kazhakkuttam	9,829	4,930	4,899	+45.46	1,170
2 Mookkam	9,813	5,169	4,644	..	732
3 Perintalmanna	9,121	4,463	4,658	..	1,788
4 Chirayinkil	8,838	4,141	4,697	..	1,564
5 Kumbala	8,812	4,437	4,375	+33.47	657
6 Valapattanam	7,296	3,718	3,578	+26.98	3,576
7 Wadakkancherry	7,245	3,443	3,802	-37.03	707
8 Hemanbikanagar	7,032	3,596	3,436	..	1,762
9 Kothamangalam	6,534	3,271	3,263	..	1,132
CLASS VI (LESS THAN 5,000)					
1 Cannanore Cantonment	4,750	2,836	1,914	+66.14	2,654
2 Munnar	4,382	2,471	1,911	..	743

LITERACY RATES BY DISTRICTS FOR 1961 AND 1971

State/District		Percentage of literacy					
		Total		Males		Females	
		1961	1971	1961	1971	1961	1971
		2	3	4	5	6	7
KERALA	T	46.85	60.42	54.97	66.62	38.90	54.31
	R	45.41	59.28	53.55	65.57	37.48	53.10
	U	54.94	66.31	62.79	71.99	47.01	60.62
1 Cannanore	T	41.29	54.84	51.96	63.20	30.98	46.62
	R	39.47	54.00	50.36	62.46	29.00	45.70
	U	50.27	60.11	59.75	67.87	40.88	52.42
2 Kozhikode	T	44.88	57.23	56.29	65.82	33.38	48.56
	R	42.56	55.08	54.43	64.23	30.63	45.84
	U	52.28	63.14	62.17	70.22	42.20	56.03
3 Malappuram	T	34.29	47.90	42.96	55.32	26.09	40.78
	R	34.23	47.55	42.83	55.00	26.09	40.40
	U	35.41	52.79	45.16	59.71	26.17	46.07
4 Palghat	T	33.69	46.69	41.81	54.58	26.14	39.22
	R	32.10	44.66	40.09	52.59	24.72	37.18
	U	46.72	60.66	55.56	68.02	38.09	53.44
5 Trichur	T	48.15	61.61	54.94	66.35	41.96	57.23
	R	46.87	60.58	53.76	65.46	40.59	56.06
	U	58.63	69.43	64.36	72.98	53.25	66.10
6 Ernakulam	T	50.58	65.29	57.80	70.34	43.33	60.15
	R	48.35	63.68	55.47	68.71	41.31	58.61
	U	58.88	69.52	66.20	74.53	51.13	64.28
7 Kottayam	T	56.56	67.72	62.40	71.77	50.51	63.59
	R	55.49	66.97	61.47	71.11	49.28	62.74
	U	66.69	74.34	71.17	77.56	62.06	71.04
8 Alleppey	T	56.90	70.44	63.84	75.22	50.15	65.79
	R	56.61	70.50	63.47	75.22	49.95	65.92
	U	58.33	70.15	65.60	75.27	51.15	65.14
9 Quilon	T	50.49	64.97	57.76	70.10	43.18	59.84
	R	49.92	64.78	57.19	69.94	42.65	59.63
	U	57.55	67.17	64.77	71.89	49.97	62.39
10 Trivandrum	T	45.30	62.54	53.30	68.64	37.54	56.48
	R	42.35	60.87	50.54	67.22	34.27	54.60
	U	53.81	67.27	61.16	72.64	46.34	61.88

LITERACY RATES BY TALUKS, 1971

District/Taluk 1	Percentage of literacy 1971		
	Persons 2	Males 3	Females 4
KERALA	60.42	66.62	54.31
1 CANNANORE	54.84	63.20	46.62
Kasaragod	40.89	51.24	30.31
Hosdrug	45.32	54.88	35.93
Taliparamba	54.77	63.59	45.99
Cannanore	63.44	71.22	55.87
Tellicherry	62.56	69.68	55.83
North Wyna	47.32	55.54	38.53
2 KOZHICODE	57.23	65.82	48.56
Badagara	55.41	65.69	45.48
Quilandy	56.84	66.77	47.04
South Wyna	47.34	54.68	39.29
Kozhikode	61.20	68.91	53.38
3 MALAPPURAM	47.90	55.32	40.78
Ernad	48.68	56.05	41.37
Perintalmanna	50.55	56.42	44.98
Tirur	46.70	54.81	39.05
Ponnani	45.59	52.94	38.79
4 PALGHAT	46.69	54.58	39.22
Ottapalam	52.64	58.21	47.54
Manarghat	38.47	45.26	31.73
Palghat	48.81	57.75	40.18
Chittur	40.39	50.48	30.63
Alathur	45.35	54.65	36.70
5 TRICHUR	61.61	66.35	57.23
Talappilly	56.23	60.76	52.11
Trichur	66.35	70.35	62.53
Chavakkad	59.11	64.64	54.34
Kodungallur	60.84	67.92	54.11
Mukundapuram	62.57	66.98	58.36

LITERACY RATES BY TALUKS, 1971—*contd.*

District/Taluk 1	Percentage of literacy, 1971		
	Persons 2	Males 3	Females 4
6 ERNAKULAM	65.29	70.34	60.15
Alwaye	60.63	65.88	55.35
Parur	66.76	71.74	61.79
Cochin	67.14	72.16	62.02
Kanayannur	69.46	74.70	64.11
Kunnathunad	61.61	66.97	56.19
Muvattupuzha	63.66	68.82	58.46
Thodupuzha	64.69	68.65	60.48
7 KOTTAYAM	67.72	71.77	63.59
Devicolum	44.41	53.31	34.84
Udumbanchola	57.02	61.55	52.14
Peermade	54.29	62.04	46.27
Meenachil	72.82	75.46	70.14
Vaikom	68.08	73.62	62.56
Kottayam	75.43	78.38	72.46
Kanjirappally	69.86	73.09	66.51
Changanacherry	74.72	77.48	71.96
8 ALLEPPEY	70.44	75.22	65.79
Shertalai	66.07	73.35	58.86
Ambalapuzha	68.72	74.61	62.87
Kuttanad	75.03	78.07	72.01
Thiruvalla	78.29	80.27	76.38
Chengannur	72.42	76.03	68.95
Mavelikkara	68.78	73.04	64.70
Karthigapally	66.65	72.68	60.95
9 QUILON	64.97	70.10	59.84
Karunagapally	62.46	68.71	56.20
Kunnathur	64.58	69.27	59.91
Pathanamthitta	72.72	75.47	69.97
Pathanapuram	62.61	67.73	57.46
Kottarakkara	63.30	68.98	57.66
Quilon	63.97	69.79	58.16
10 TRIVANDRUM	62.54	68.64	56.48
Chirayinkil	60.65	67.81	53.91
Nedumangad	61.10	67.69	54.52
Trivandrum	67.18	72.98	61.35
Neyyattinkara	58.98	64.24	53.67

LITERACY RATES BY TOWNS, 1971

District	Town	Percentage of literacy		
		Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5
1 Cannanore	Manjeshwar	49.29	61.05	37.70
	Kumbla	47.88	56.64	38.99
	Kasaragod (M)	56.04	64.21	47.78
	Kanhangad	49.36	59.24	39.44
	Nileshwar	50.58	61.56	40.31
	Payyannur	60.48	68.45	53.25
	Taliparamba	50.76	62.56	38.90
	Pappinisseri	58.80	68.15	49.34
	Valapattanam	60.39	69.96	50.45
	Cannanore (M)	66.26	72.10	60.28
	Cannanore Cantonment	74.61	79.30	67.66
2 Kozhikode	Kuthuparamba	59.52	65.89	53.20
	Tellicherry (M)	70.89	75.48	66.46
	Badagara (M)	61.21	69.05	53.40
	Pantalayani	57.14	65.03	49.71
	Elathur	60.61	69.34	51.96
	Calicut (C)	65.38	71.80	58.89
	Kunnamangalam	60.99	70.06	52.06
	Mokkam	65.10	73.22	56.05
	Cheruvannur	63.64	70.76	56.40
	Beyypore	60.24	65.85	54.47
3 Malappuram	Feroke	55.43	64.57	46.24
	Kadalundi	55.87	66.12	46.21
	Malappuram (M)	59.91	66.04	53.86
	Manjeri	64.83	70.49	59.41
	Perintalmanna	66.12	72.53	59.98
	Tirur	55.50	61.50	49.60
	Ponnani	35.25	44.26	26.68

LITERACY RATES BY TOWNS, 1971—contd.

District	Town	Percentage of literacy		
		Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5
4 Palghat	Pattambi	57.05	64.33	49.91
	Shoranur	69.06	74.99	63.16
	Ottapalam	60.71	67.02	54.83
	Mannarghat	56.30	65.29	47.56
	Hemambikanagar	66.40	71.38	61.18
	Palghat (M)	60.51	67.90	53.15
	Chittur-Thathamangalam (M)	59.23	67.73	51.00
	Nemmara	54.46	63.06	46.44
5 Trichur	Wadakkancherry	66.05	70.81	61.73
	Pazhanji	68.42	71.03	66.05
	Kunnamkulam (M)	71.29	73.91	68.98
	Trichur (M)	76.17	79.11	73.34
	Ollur	69.42	72.70	66.25
	Chavakkad	53.95	58.99	49.59
	Guruvayur Town ship	68.59	72.61	65.04
	Irinjalakuda (M)	73.52	76.68	70.55
	Chalakudy	65.60	69.52	61.70
6 Ernakulam	Angamaly	63.42	67.44	59.44
	Alwaye (M)	74.42	78.73	69.79
	Parur (M)	71.59	75.98	67.36
	Eloor	71.36	77.06	64.66
	Njarakkal	70.12	74.20	66.17
	Cochin (C)	69.50	74.57	64.18
	Trippunithura	72.39	76.67	68.23
	Kalamassery	62.42	69.11	54.89
	Perumbavoor (M)	67.33	72.44	61.90
	Kothamangalam	69.21	74.63	63.78
	Muvattupuzha (M)	68.75	74.40	62.75
	Thodupuzha	68.78	73.39	63.80

LITERACY RATES BY TOWNS, 1971—*cont'd.*

District	Town	Percentage of literacy		
		Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5
7 Kottayam	Munnar	70.01	76.37	61.80
	Palai (M)	77.25	79.14	75.29
	Vaikom (M)	70.84	76.34	65.50
	Ettumanoor	73.18	75.97	70.29
	Kottayam (M)	77.37	80.12	74.58
	Ponkunnam	74.69	77.31	71.87
	Kanjirappally	68.53	72.12	64.69
	Mundakkayam	69.70	73.09	66.14
	Changanacherry (M)	74.95	78.29	71.62
8 Alleppey	Shertalai (M)	69.16	76.12	62.37
	Alleppey (M)	70.04	75.43	64.62
	Thiruvalla (M)	79.31	81.24	77.49
	Chengannur	76.52	79.85	73.25
	Mavelikkara (M)	75.57	78.13	73.16
	Pandalam	66.85	71.37	62.45
	Haripad	68.57	73.83	63.61
	Kayamkulam (M)	64.15	70.51	57.95
9 Quilon	Punalur	70.31	74.76	65.74
	Quilon (M)	68.22	72.13	64.25
	Kundara	70.29	73.91	66.70
	Kilikolloor	62.28	69.75	54.75
10 Trivandrum	Varkala	59.77	64.71	55.13
	Attingal (M)	69.01	75.56	62.69
	Chirayinkil	74.07	78.70	69.98
	Nedumangad	63.80	70.62	57.11
	Kazhakuttam	62.79	69.66	55.89
	Trivandrum (C)	69.16	74.41	63.84
	Nemom	65.19	71.48	58.92
	Balaramapuram	60.76	67.47	53.91
	Neyyattinkara	67.23	72.26	62.22
	Kovalam	34.04	36.72	31.24

**POPULATION BY MAJOR RELIGIONS IN KERALA
BY DISTRICTS, 1971**

State/District		Hindus	Muslims	Christians	Others
1		2	3	4	5
KERALA	P	12,683,277	4,162,718	4,494,089	7,291
	M	6,263,429	2,071,719	2,248,058	4,645
	F	6,419,848	20,90,999	2,246,031	2,646
1 Cannanore	P	1,566,382	575,652	222,288	842
	M	773,323	284,615	113,885	515
	F	793,059	291,037	108,403	327
2 Kozhikode	P	1,308,734	645,041	150,687	1,787
	M	655,320	324,152	77,308	984
	F	653,414	320,889	73,379	803
3 Malappuram	P	632,645	1,186,675	36,976	66
	M	307,435	583,407	18,627	46
	F	325,210	603,268	18,349	20
4 Palghat	P	1,281,437	358,379	45,426	100
	M	617,626	178,219	23,655	71
	F	663,811	180,160	21,771	29
5 Trichur	P	1,300,904	291,526	536,061	306
	M	621,948	138,764	261,806	256
	F	678,956	152,762	274,255	50
6 Ernakulam	P	1,096,374	293,956	989,962	2,886
	M	554,658	151,067	494,206	2,015
	F	541,716	142,889	495,756	871
7 Kottayam	P	1,014,039	92,250	978,553	292
	M	513,530	47,600	493,662	173
	F	500,509	44,650	484,891	119
8 Alleppey	P	1,392,262	145,691	587,469	300
	M	684,184	73,932	289,801	165
	F	708,078	71,759	297,668	135
9 Quilon	P	1,535,827	309,521	567,156	317
	M	764,668	157,414	283,455	183
	F	771,159	152,107	283,701	134
10 Trivandrum	P	1,554,673	264,027	379,511	395
	M	770,737	132,549	191,653	237
	F	783,936	131,478	187,858	158

**POPULATION BY WORKERS AND NON-WORKERS,
KERALA, 1971**

Category		Persons	Males	Females
1		2	3	4
TOTAL POPULATION	T	21,347,375	10,587,851	10,759,524
	R	17,880,926	8,852,350	9,028,576
	U	3,466,449	1,735,501	1,730,948
<i>TOTAL WORKERS</i> (I-IX)	<i>T</i>	<i>6,216,459</i>	<i>4,764,582</i>	<i>1,451,877</i>
	<i>R</i>	<i>5,281,004</i>	<i>4,009,495</i>	<i>1,271,509</i>
	<i>U</i>	<i>935,455</i>	<i>755,087</i>	<i>180,368</i>
I Cultivators	T	1,106,663	1,039,331	67,332
	R	1,068,823	1,004,486	64,337
	U	37,840	34,845	2,995
II Agricultural labourers	T	1,908,114	1,195,755	712,359
	R	1,814,824	1,134,946	679,878
	U	93,290	60,809	32,481
III Livestock, Forestry, Fishing, Hunting and Plantations, Orchards & allied activities	T	434,829	356,438	78,391
	R	388,647	311,297	77,350
	U	46,182	45,141	1,041
IV Mining and Quarrying	T	29,886	27,583	2,303
	R	26,962	25,246	1,716
	U	2,924	2,337	587
V Manufacturing, Process- ing, Servicing & Repairs				
(a) Household Industry	T	265,892	147,625	118,267
	R	231,691	126,551	105,140
	U	34,201	21,074	13,127
(b) Other than Household Industry	T	711,962	533,353	178,609
	R	536,195	386,379	149,816
	U	175,767	146,974	28,793

**POPULATION BY WORKERS AND NON-WORKERS,
KERALA, 1971—*concl'd.***

Category		Persons	Males	Females
1		2	3	4
VI Construction	T	107,449	103,098	4,351
	R	84,744	81,785	2,959
	U	22,705	21,313	1,392
VII Trade and Commerce	T	565,648	536,887	28,761
	R	391,854	373,553	18,301
	U	173,794	163,334	10,460
VIII Transport, Storage and Communications	T	242,089	227,576	14,513
	R	149,728	139,337	10,391
	U	92,361	88,239	4,122
IX Other Services	T	843,927	596,936	246,991
	R	587,536	425,915	161,621
	U	256,391	171,021	85,370
X NON-WORKERS	T	15,130,916	5,823,269	9,307,647
	R	12,599,922	4,842,855	7,757,067
	U	2,530,994	980,414	1,550,580

**DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS AND NON-WORKERS,
BY DISTRICTS, 1971**

State/District	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4
TOTAL WORKERS			
Kerala	6,216,459	4,764,582	1,451,877
1 Cannanore	714,593	538,887	175,706
2 Kozhikode	566,936	467,485	99,451
3 Malappuram	502,644	406,415	96,229
4 Palghat	604,825	402,083	202,742
5 Trichur	603,551	427,600	175,951
6 Ernakulam	687,253	542,313	144,940
7 Kottayam	619,613	494,382	125,231
8 Alleppey	598,468	452,061	146,407
9 Quilon	690,283	534,959	155,324
10 Trivandrum	628,293	498,397	129,896

I CULTIVATORS

Kerala	1,106,663	1,039,331	67,332
1 Cannanore	130,878	112,905	17,973
2 Kozhikode	82,607	78,313	4,294
3 Malappuram	94,713	88,876	5,837
4 Palghat	95,204	80,122	15,082
5 Trichur	82,354	73,883	8,471
6 Ernakulam	100,547	96,101	4,446
7 Kottayam	150,655	147,649	3,006
8 Alleppey	95,798	92,917	2,881
9 Quilon	185,620	182,985	2,635
10 Trivandrum	88,287	85,580	2,707

II AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS

Kerala	1,908,114	1,195,755	712,359
1 Cannanore	242,383	134,264	108,119
2 Kozhikode	149,332	105,984	43,348
3 Malappuram	196,654	131,741	64,913

**DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS AND NON-WORKERS
BY DISTRICTS, 1971—contd.**

State/District	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4
4 Palghat	292,883	141,308	151,575
5 Trichur	198,203	104,901	93,302
6 Ernakulam	152,759	90,468	62,291
7 Kottayam	161,214	115,014	46,200
8 Alleppey	183,481	110,609	72,872
9 Quilon	143,647	109,318	34,329
10 Trivandrum	187,558	152,148	35,410

**III LIVE-STOCK, FORESTRY, FISHING, HUNTING AND
PLANTATIONS, ORCHARDS AND ALLIED ACTIVITIES**

Kerala	434,829	356,438	78,391
1 Cannanore	37,822	32,339	5,483
2 Kozhikode	60,881	48,121	12,760
3 Malappuram	30,004	28,246	1,758
4 Palghat	21,706	17,764	3,942
5 Trichur	30,098	26,734	3,364
6 Ernakulam	39,420	36,306	3,114
7 Kottayam	107,680	67,995	39,685
8 Alleppey	32,383	31,181	1,202
9 Quilon	40,922	35,927	4,995
10 Trivandrum	33,913	31,825	2,088

IV MINING AND QUARRYING

Kerala	29,886	27,583	2,303
1 Cannanore	4,999	4,870	129
2 Kozhikode	3,434	3,383	51
3 Malappuram	2,612	2,608	4
4 Palghat	1,639	1,622	37
5 Trichur	4,136	3,652	504
6 Ernakulam	4,566	4,108	458
7 Kottayam	1,823	1,731	92
8 Alleppey	1,352	1,320	32
9 Quilon	2,449	2,293	156
10 Trivandrum	2,836	1,996	840

**DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS AND NON-WORKERS
BY DISTRICTS, 1971—contd.**

State/District	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4
V MANUFACTURING, PROCESSING, SERVICING AND REPAIR			
<i>(a) Household Industry</i>			
Kerala	265,892	147,625	118,267
1 Cannanore	27,914	17,518	10,396
2 Kozhikode	18,694	11,588	7,106
3 Malappuram	15,483	10,802	4,681
4 Palghat	25,808	18,521	7,287
5 Trichur	35,409	17,417	17,992
6 Ernakulam	26,639	15,057	11,582
7 Kottayam	14,911	9,431	5,480
8 Alleppey	41,667	15,026	26,641
9 Quilon	26,101	13,260	12,841
10 Trivandrum	33,266	19,005	14,261

(b) Other than Household Industry

Kerala	711,962	533,353	178,609
1 Cannanore	89,246	80,370	8,876
2 Kozhikode	59,296	49,937	9,359
3 Malappuram	34,545	30,322	4,223
4 Palghat	42,515	39,064	3,451
5 Trichur	78,018	62,263	15,755
6 Ernakulam	107,490	88,870	18,620
7 Kottayam	39,631	36,466	3,165
8 Alleppey	61,899	50,088	11,811
9 Quilon	124,494	51,349	73,145
10 Trivandrum	74,828	44,624	30,204

VI CONSTRUCTION

Kerala	107,449	103,098	4,351
1 Cannanore	10,187	9,850	337
2 Kozhikode	9,796	9,485	311
3 Malappuram	6,767	6,635	132
4 Palghat	8,319	7,576	743
5 Trichur	9,713	9,042	671

**DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS AND NON-WORKERS
BY DISTRICTS, 1971—contd.**

State/District	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4
6 Ernakulam	25,300	24,148	1,152
7 Kottayam	9,160	8,978	182
8 Alleppey	9,273	8,923	350
9 Quilon	8,840	8,752	88
10 Trivandrum	10,094	9,709	385

VII TRADE AND COMMERCE

Kerala	565,648	536,887	28,761
1 Cannanore	70,934	67,479	3,455
2 Kozhikode	70,527	69,492	1,035
3 Malappuram	43,790	43,151	639
4 Palghat	42,054	39,779	2,275
5 Trichur	61,131	58,285	2,846
6 Ernakulam	71,710	67,497	4,213
7 Kottayam	43,568	41,640	1,928
8 Alleppey	57,970	55,467	2,503
9 Quilon	51,446	48,901	2,545
10 Trivandrum	52,518	45,196	7,322

VIII TRANSPORT, STORAGE AND COMMUNICATIONS

Kerala	242,089	227,576	14,513
1 Cannanore	21,188	19,179	2,009
2 Kozhikode	32,478	30,378	2,100
3 Malappuram	17,201	16,899	302
4 Palghat	16,735	16,223	512
5 Trichur	24,198	21,565	2,633
6 Ernakulam	46,405	43,665	2,740
7 Kottayam	16,009	15,452	557
8 Alleppey	24,112	23,215	897
9 Quilon	20,489	19,981	508
10 Trivandrum	23,274	21,019	2,255

**DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS AND NON-WORKERS
BY DISTRICTS, 1971—*concl.***

State/District	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4
IX OTHER SERVICES			
Kerala	843,927	596,936	246,991
1 Cannanore	79,042	60,113	18,929
2 Kozhikode	79,891	60,804	19,087
3 Malappuram	60,875	47,135	13,740
4 Palghat	57,942	40,104	17,838
5 Trichur	80,271	49,858	30,413
6 Ernakulam	112,417	76,093	36,324
7 Kottayam	74,962	50,026	24,936
8 Alleppey	90,533	63,315	27,218
9 Quilon	86,275	62,193	24,082
10 Trivandrum	121,719	87,295	34,424

X TOTAL NON-WORKERS

Kerala	15,130,916	5,823,269	9,307,647
1 Cannanore	1,650,571	633,451	1,017,120
2 Kozhikode	1,539,313	590,279	949,034
3 Malappuram	1,353,718	503,100	850,618
4 Palghat	1,080,517	417,486	663,029
5 Trichur	1,525,246	595,174	930,072
6 Ernakulam	1,695,925	659,633	1,036,292
7 Kottayam	1,465,521	563,583	904,938
8 Alleppey	1,527,254	596,021	931,233
9 Quilon	1,722,538	670,761	1,051,777
10 Trivandrum	1,570,313	596,779	973,534

CONFIDENTIAL

CENSUS OF INDIA 1971

INDIVIDUAL SLIP

Pad No. Ship No.

Location Code.....() Household No. []

1 Name _____

2 Relationship to head _____

3 Sex ☐

4 Age _____

5 Marital status _____

6 For currently married women only :

(a) Age at marriage _____

(b) Any child born in the last one year _____

(a) Place of birth _____

(b) Rural/Urban _____

(c) District _____

(d) State/Country _____

(a) Place of last residence _____

(b) Rural/Urban _____

(c) District _____

(d) State/Country _____

9 Duration of residence at the village or town of Enumeration _____

10 Religion _____

S. C. _____

or _____

S. T. _____

12 Literacy (L or O) ☐

13 Educational level _____

14 Mother tongue _____

15 Other languages _____

16 MAIN ACTIVITY

(a) Broad category

(i) Worker (C, AL, HHI, OW)

(ii) Non-worker (H, ST, R, D, B, I, O)

(b) Place of work (Name of Village/Town) _____

(c) Name of Establishment _____

(d) Nature of Industry, Trade, Profession or Service _____

(e) Description of work _____

(f) Class of worker _____

17 SECONDARY WORK

(a) Broad category (C, AL, HHI, OW) _____

(b) Place of work (Name of Village/Town) _____

(c) Name of Establishment _____

(d) Nature of Industry, Trade, Profession or Service _____

(e) Description of work _____

(f) Class of worker _____

CENSUS OF INDIA, 1971

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